DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 318 705 SP 032 209

TITLE	Classroom Motivation--Helping Students Want To Learn and Achieve in School.
INSTITUTION	New Jersey State Dept. of Education, Trenton.
PUB DATE	Apr 86
NOTE	88p.
AVAILABLE FROM	New Jersey State Dept. of Education, Distribution Services, 225 West State St. (CN 500), Trenton, NJ 08625 ($4.25).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Academic Achievement; *Classroom Techniques; Elementary Secondary Education; *Individual Differences; Parent School Relationship; Positive Reinforcement; *Research Utilization; *Student Motivation; Student Reaction

ABSTRACT

This publication focuses on the need for school environments conducive to teaching and learning, for parents who give positive support, and for students who are motivated to learn. The publication is based upon contemporary research into the relationship of students' interest in learning and achieving to their academic success. It presents ideas about the nature and source of motivation, how motivation is affected by growth and development, the conditions under which it flourishes, and the role of teachers and administrators in enhancing it. Following the first introductory chapter, Chapter 2 presents an overview of problems associated with student motivation and its relationship to academic achievement. Chapter 3 summarizes concepts of motivation, exploring what causes youngsters to want to achieve and how motives are affected by individual differences. Chapter 4 summarizes the research on learning conditions which can strengthen students' interest in academic achievement and their willingness to expend effort for it. The final chapter offers practical suggestions for classroom practices that will meet the needs of students and increase their motivation to learn and achieve. References are included. (JD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

SP

ED318705

Classroom Motivation:

Helping Students Want to Learn and Achieve in School

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

R. Vespucci

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

New Jersey Department of Education, Division of General Academic Education

SP 032 209

Additional copies of this publication may be obtained by forwarding a pre-paid written request to the following address:

New Jersey State Department of Education
Distribution Services
225 West State Street (CN 500)
Trenton, New Jersey 08625

There is a $4.25 charge per copy to cover costs of printing, mailing and handling. Checks or money orders should be made payable to: "Treasurer, State of New Jersey."

Please allow four to six weeks for delivery. A price list and order form for other titles issued by the Department are available upon request.

CLASSROOM MOTIVATION:

HELPING STUDENTS WANT TO LEARN AND ACHIEVE

IN SCHOOL

Saul Cooperman, Commissioner

Division of General Academic Education
Joel Bloom, Assistant Commissioner

Tynette W. Hills, Principal Author
Elaine P. Davis, Secondary Author

New Jersey State Department of Education
225 West State Street (CN 500)
Trenton, New Jersey 08625

April 1986

PTM #500.55

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

JOHN T. KLAGHOLZ President	Seaside Park
JAMES JONES Vice President	Teaneck
S. DAVID BRANDT	Cherry Hill
MAUD DAHME	Annandale
BETTY A. DEAN	East Orange
MATEO F. DeCARDENAS	Union City
ANNE S. DILLMAN	Perth Amboy
ALICE A. HOLZAPFEL	Elizabeth
ROBERT H. MARIK	Princeton
NANCY SCHAENEN	Madison
JAMES M. SEABROOK, SR	Bridgeton
DEBORAH P. WOLFE Representing the State Board of Higher Education	Cranford

Saul Cooperman, Commissioner of Education
Secretary

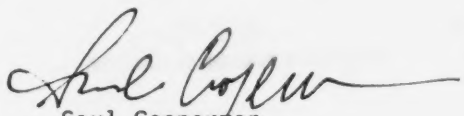
T. Edward Hollander, Chancellor of Higher Education
Ex-Officio

COMMISSIONER'S FOREWORD

Continuing to improve and strengthen the education we offer in our public schools is an aim which demands the best and most dedicated effort of all those most closely involved -- educators, parents, and students. To achieve the goal, we must have school environments conducive to teaching and learning, parents who give positive support, students who come prepared to learn, and teachers who present interesting and challenging schoolwork.

This publication on classroom motivation focuses on the latter responsibility. Addressed primarily to classroom teachers and those who work with them, this publication is based upon contemporary research into the relationship of students' interest in learning and achieving to their academic success. It presents ideas about the nature and source of motivation, how it is affected by growth and development, the conditions under which it flourishes, and the role of teachers and administrators in enhancing it.

This guide and the related training opportunities offered through our regional curriculum services units are part of our effort to assist local school districts in a comprehensive approach to school improvement. An important component involves the strategies teachers use to elicit students' respect and attract and hold their attention to learning tasks. I recommend that all teachers and administrators become familiar with the ideas and suggestions in this publication and use them to enhance students' motivation to learn the concepts and skills so essential to their present and future lives.



Saul Cooperman
Commissioner

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For their many helpful suggestions for the organization and content of this resource guide, special thanks are extended to the following staff members of the New Jersey Department of Education:

Robert Goger	Instructional Specialist, Regional Curriculum Services Unit - North
Brenda Grier	Instructional Specialist, Regional Curriculum Services Unit - Central
John Khanlian	Instructional Specialist, Regional Curriculum Services Unit - South
Carol West	Educational Program Specialist, Division of Compensatory/Bilingual Education
Florence Cucchi	Editor, Bureau of Operations and Planning Division of General Academic Education
Jacqueline L. Cusack	Manager, Bureau of Student Behavior and Development Division of General Academic Education
Word Processing Specialists	Division of Administration

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	**Introduction**	1
	Purposes of the Guide	1
	Overview of the Guide	1
II.	**Student Motivation and Learning**	3
	Problems with Student Motivation	3
	What Schools Can Do about the Problems	4
III.	**The Nature of Motivation: What Causes Students to Want to Learn and Achieve in School?**	7
	Theories of Motivation	7
	Competence Motivation	7
	Motivation by Reinforcement	9
	Self-Worth Motivation	11
	Motivation through Social Learning	14
	Motivation to Achieve in School	17
	Motivational Differences Among Students	18
	Developmental Differences	18
	Individual Characteristics	22
	Personal History of Achievement	22
IV.	**Enhancing Motivation: What Conditions Can Strengthen Student Interest and Effort?**	27
	School and Classroom Organization	27
	Goal Structures as Motivational Systems	28
	Typical School-Related Tasks	29
	Lower Elementary Grades	29
	Retention and Promotion	30

Influence of the Social Group..... 30

Teacher Behaviors Which Enhance Motivation 32

They Communicate Their Own Enthusiasm..... 32

They Make the Most of Class Time for Learning..... 34

They Stimulate Students' Intrinsic Motivation for Learning..... 35

They Encourage Autonomy Among Students..... 36

They Help Students Become Aware of Their Own Learning Processes..... 37

They Make Rewards Available to All Students..... 39

The Role of Administrators..... 39

V. **Enhancing Motivation: What Strategies Can Teachers Use to Increase Students' Motivation to Learn and Achieve?**.. 41

Meeting the Individual Needs of Students..... 43

Building Positive Student Attitudes Toward School and Teachers..... 47

Attracting and Holding Student Attention to Learning Tasks..... 50

Organizing Instruction to Enhance Motivation..... 54

Reinforcing Effort and Providing Incentives for Achievement..... 57

Integrating Principles for Enhancing Student Motivation. 65

References..... 69

Appendix. Related Publications of the New Jersey State Department of Education..... 75

Feedback Form..... 79

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Helping students learn and achieve success in schoolwork is a goal which dominates the professional concern and day-to-day efforts of educators. Most other adults in our society, and certainly parents, share in the concern. School is an arena in which the young learn essential knowledge and skills to enable them to function in our society. Making effective use of this educational opportunity is critical to the present and future welfare of each young person.

Many factors are involved in academic achievement, and not all of them are under the control of educators. However, there are many ways for teachers and administrators to increase the chances that students will learn successfully. Some of these involve stimulating students' desires to learn and providing the school environments which will strengthen and maintain those desires.

Purposes of the Guide

Classroom Motivation: Helping Students Want to Learn and Achieve in School was written to help teachers and administrators improve their abilities to elicit students' interest and persistence in learning and attaining higher levels of academic achievement. Reading this guide, exploring its implications in group training sessions, and applying the principles and suggestions it presents can help educators with these four objectives:

1) to explore the meaning of research on student motivation for improvement of classroom instruction;

2) to expand understanding of effective motivational strategies;

3) to develop increased awareness of the ways motivational orientations may vary among pupils of differing ages and individual circumstances; and

4) to examine a variety of recommended classroom practices which have proved helpful in stimulating students' involvement and success in learning.

Overview of the Guide

The next chapter of the guide consists of an overview of problems associated with student motivation and its relationship to academic achievement.

Chapter III summarizes concepts of motivation, exploring the questions: What causes youngsters to want to achieve? How are motives affected by individual differences, for example, age?

Chapter IV summarizes the research on learning conditions which can strengthen students' interest in academic achievement and their willingness to expend effort for it.

Chapter V offers practical suggestions for classroom practices through which teachers may meet the individual needs of students, elicit students' respect, attract and hold their attention to learning tasks, and reinforce their efforts.

Following the list of references, there is a description of related publications and training available from the New Jersey State Department of Education.

CHAPTER II

STUDENT MOTIVATION AND LEARNING

> . . . we shall be better and braver and less helpless if we think that we ought to inquire than we would be if we thought that there was no knowing and no duty to seek to know what we do not know. . . .
>
> Socrates, in The Dialogues of Plato: The Meno.

From the Greek philosophers down to the present day, humankind has extolled the virtues of knowledge. For an equally long time, teachers have understood the need to awaken students' interests and desires to learn. Today, lack of student motivation for classroom learning is viewed by educators as one of the primary problems of education, particularly at the secondary level (Klausmeier, 1980).

Problems with Student Motivation

It may be more difficult to elicit student interest in school now than in the past (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1985). Many students appear "turned off" to school. Lagging student interest may be attributable to any of these circumstances:

- Many children seem to be oriented to immediate gratification and not disposed to give priority to effort which has a delayed payoff, as is the case with education.
- The high school diploma has lost value for entry into the job market.
- More high school students are working at a job in addition to school, giving them more options for investing their time.
- School students spend significant amounts of time watching TV and in after-school activities not supervised by adults.
- The high rate of family instability may be associated with a relaxation of family standards for school achievement.

Comparisons of students in United States' schools with those of Japan and some European countries have shown that the students in some other countries learn more difficult subjects at earlier ages. Is this evidence that some societies tend more than our own to foster values which encourage and challenge students? No, this is not the case, according to a report to the National Commission on Educational Excellence (Maehr, 1982). The United States, too, is an achievement-oriented society, which places high value on knowledge and skills which help individuals and the entire society attain goals.

However, school is frankly boring to many students, an understandable reaction to observers like Goodlad (1983) and Sizer (1984), who claim that students spend large portions of the school day listening to teachers talk, taking tests on what the teachers said, and completing meaningless assignments. The goal of our public educational system, to keep all children in school and graduate them with a high school diploma, may itself contribute to the lack of challenge in some classrooms. Schools have frequently turned to electives, to simpler content, to courses which appeal to current and perhaps superficial student interests (Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985). Although unintended, the effect has been to reduce the priority of challenging academic work.

Teachers, too, show evidence of disengagement, as the widely reported "burnout" syndrome would indicate. In some schools, a general air of apathy prevails, with both teachers and students feeling disinterest. In such an atmosphere, the two parties sometimes enter into an unspoken contract not to stress academic effort (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1985). This is doubly defeating for teachers, because many of the rewards from teaching come from helping relationships with students. If they experience repeated disappointment and see no ready solution, teachers may disengage from their work and seek their personal rewards elsewhere, in much the same way that students also look beyond the school and school day for their own satisfactions.

These shortcomings in the educational system have been observed at a time when self-directed learning and intellectual flexibility are more than ever valuable for the job market and essential for the future. National attention to the problems peaked in recent years with a series of critiques by governmental and business task forces (National Commission on Educational Excellence, 1983; Education Commission of the States, 1983), which found public education deficient and recommended some sweeping changes in standards, curriculum, and quality of instruction. However, the proposals may fail unless implementing them takes into account two fundamental aspects of teacher-student relations (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1985). These are:

- the importance of the social relationships between teachers and students; and
- the level of student engagement in the learning process in school.

What Schools Can Do about the Problems

Can schools confront the major problems which have been identified and make a positive difference? According to Rutter (1980), they can. Although schools cannot right all the wrongs in our society and cannot compensate for inadequacies of some homes, they can make a significant difference in fostering good behavior and higher achievement. Rutter has found that high self-esteem and a sense of achievement can partially protect children and youth from the disadvantaging effects present in some of their environments. He believes that children may learn ways of coping with difficulties they face if schools help them to believe in their own worth and their own ability to succeed and become competent at something.

Frequently schools are criticized for an unduly heavy emphasis on academic matters, to the neglect of children's social-personal well-being. It is more a balance of the two that is needed, according to Greenberger (1982). The links between students' achievement and their personal welfare may be stronger than is often recognized. When students' personal needs are fulfilled, they seem more likely to invest themselves in academic effort and receive more pleasure from it, with a positive effect on their achievement.

In research on effective schools and effective teachers, there is general agreement that teaching is the heart of the process. Variations in teachers' behavior with students can account for changes in student achievement (Hawley, Rosenholz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984). Consistently, what teachers do with students has more to do with student outcomes than the curriculum or any other part of the program. (See Davis, 1985, for a summary of research on effective management of classroom instruction.)

Teaching is an instrumental art (Gage, 1984, p. 88). It is not comprised of recipes and formulas; rather, it requires flexibility, spontaneity, improvisation, and the management of a complex array of possibilities of form, style, pace, and rhythm. Teachers' decisions, which are made at the rate of more than one hundred per day, are based on their best working knowledge of the relationships between teacher actions and student learning. Gage maintains that research has shown many times over that it is possible to change teaching practices of enough teachers to make a real difference in education.

A major responsibility of educators is to assure that all students have a chance to get the most from the educational program. This requires that teachers and administrators provide an environment that stimulates students' active involvement in their learning. In the chapters which follow, there are summaries of what is known about why children want to learn and achieve, why some might feel this motivation more keenly than others, and what classroom practices can enhance student motivation.

When teachers dream about better-motivated students, it is likely that they have particular things in mind (Maehr, 1982). For example, teachers want students to:

- choose to do the learning task instead of something else;
- choose to do it with some persistence in class, but also on their own; and
- show improved performance, as a result of the first two choices.

That is a working description of motivation for learning which most people could accept. The various ways academic motivation arises from general motivational experiences and how it changes in the course of development are the focus of Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF MOTIVATION: WHAT CAUSES STUDENTS TO WANT TO LEARN AND ACHIEVE IN SCHOOL?

Wanting to learn and achieve in school arises from the dynamics which cause human beings to desire a goal and exert effort to reach it. What explains motivation to engage in a particular activity and expend effort at it? Are persons:

- intrinsically motivated to act in certain ways in order to learn?
- extrinsically motivated to behave so as to obtain some desirable result and avoid an undesirable one?
- motivated by a need to preserve a sense of personal worth?
- motivated to do those things which they perceive as consistent with certain beliefs and expectations about themselves?

Each of these explanations of human motivation has supporters, as the following descriptions indicate.

Theories of Motivation

Competence Motivation - A Theory of Intrinsic Motivation

White (1959) coined the term "competence motivation" to denote a natural human characteristic that leads people to explore their environment and seek to become effective in it. This human quality can be seen most clearly in healthy babies and young children, who display unflagging interest in everything around them. White held that children would not be able to learn everything they had to know to get along in the world unless they worked at it all the time. Their natural interest insures that the necessary learning can take place, and the sense of competence that results from solving a problem is pleasurable (Stipek & Weisz, 1981; White, 1959). Figure 1 graphically portrays the reciprocal external and internal forces which are involved as the child moves toward the goal.

PEOPLE ARE MOTIVATED TO SATISFY A NATURAL NEED TO INTERACT COMPETENTLY WITH THEIR ENVIRONMENTS.

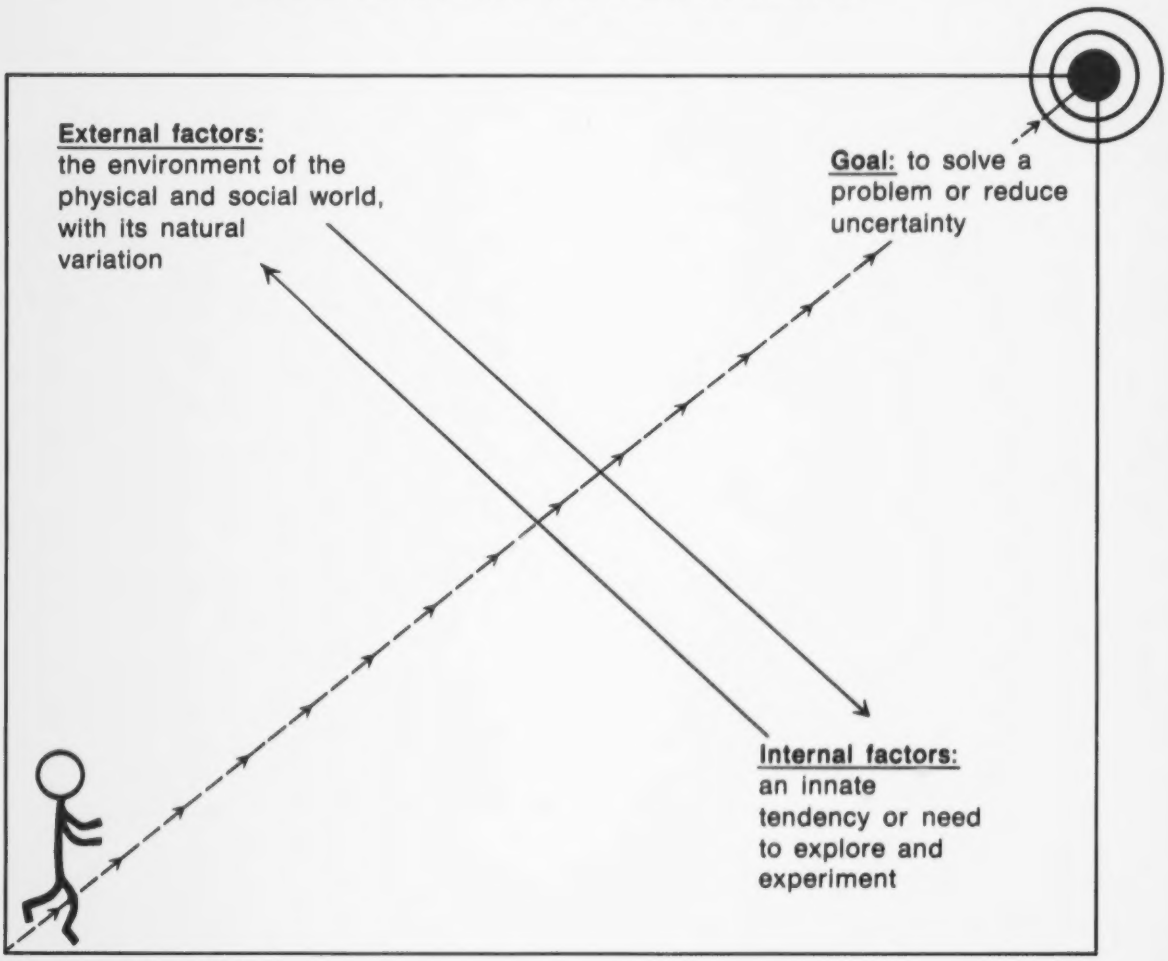

External factors:
the environment of the physical and social world, with its natural variation
Goal: to solve a problem or reduce uncertainty
Internal factors:
an innate tendency or need to explore and experiment
The Individual Child

Figure 1. **COMPETENCE MOTIVATION,** based on ideas of human capacity to interact effectively with the environment.

The child seeks to answer the questions: How can I change the situation and what consequences will it have for me?

Piaget (1970) described the internal processes through which this kind of motivation works. Most of the time, we can make sense out of events and experiences on the basis of what we already know, assimilating them into our current understandings. From time to time, we face novel experiences or discrepant events, which fail to fit our existing concepts. Then our intellectual processes work to accommodate the new information, sometimes requiring us to alter our ideas. The reciprocal processes of assimilation and accommodation are part of the human capacity to reach a balance between our present knowledge and its inadequacy in the face of contradicting experiences. Thus, the contradiction itself can help to spur the person to increased knowledge and more adequate understanding. This is especially the case when added maturity and experience make us capable of more logical thought and cause us to reject ideas we formerly accepted.

How Can This Theory Help With Understanding Academic Motivation? If children are naturally motivated to learn, these principles can help to guide classroom instruction:

- It is important to include as many valid learning tasks as possible for which students are intrinsically motivated (that is, they find reward in the task itself).
- Learning activities which contradict children's current views are likely to stimulate their interest.
- Working with others, especially other children, who have different ideas and solutions may arouse students' curiosity and help prepare them for expanding or changing their concepts.
- In general, children are likely to prefer tasks which offer them an opportunity to learn, rather than those which are too difficult or too easy.

Limitations of This Theory. These principles, however, cannot extend to all the kinds of learning experiences schools are required to offer. Too, this kind of motivation is at its peak during the time when children are acquiring new kinds of abilities, such as language or concrete reasoning. During that time, children are almost always inclined to work to their capacity. Once the underlying physical and intellectual structures have been developed, the major impetus to keep children functioning at their best must come from other sources, many of them extrinsic (Elkind, 1971). While learning tasks with intrinsic interest are highly desirable, Elkind emphatically reminds us that not all learning can be fun!

Motivation by Reinforcement - A Theory of Extrinsic Motivation

Reinforcement theory is based on very different assumptions from the views presented in Figure 1. According to this theory, the behaviors people learn and choose to display result from extrinsic causes. Simply stated, a person is likely to behave in a desired way more frequently if he/she is rewarded for it and not to behave in an undesirable way if punished for it. The influence of those external factors shapes the behavior of the child in relation to a goal, as shown in Figure 2.

PEOPLE ARE MOTIVATED TO WORK TO ACHIEVE REWARDS AND TO AVOID PUNISHMENT.

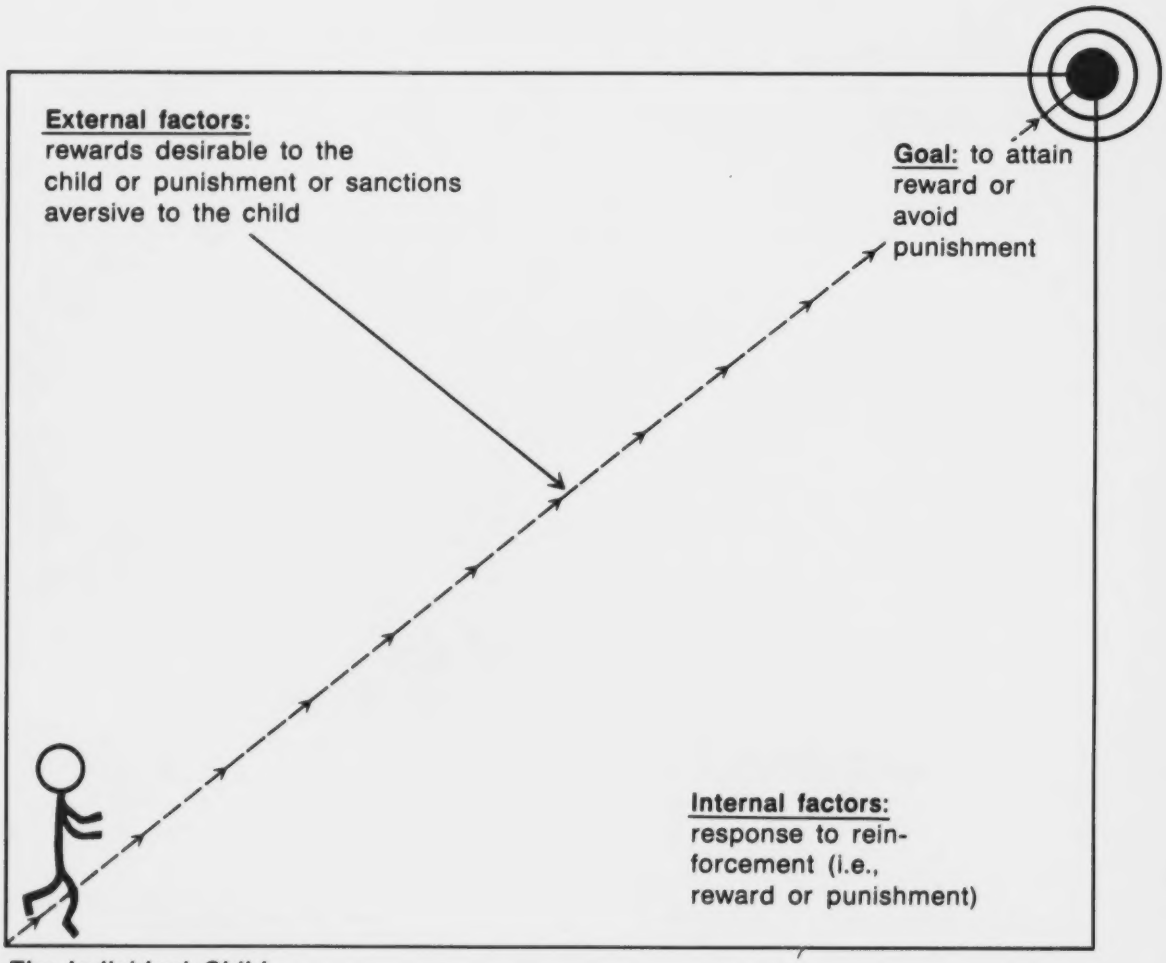

External factors:
rewards desirable to the child or punishment or sanctions aversive to the child
Goal: to attain reward or avoid punishment
Internal factors:
response to reinforcement (i.e., reward or punishment)
The Individual Child

Figure 2. **REINFORCEMENT THEORY**, based on ideas that human beings are motivated by external rewards/punishments

The child seeks to answer the question: How can I attain desirable rewards and avoid discomfort or punishment?

Reinforcement theory dominated educational training and practice in the United States up until about ten years ago and continues to have significant influence (Stipek, 1982). The use of rewards and punishments is still widely practiced in public school classrooms. We expect that children will work to attain good grades and avoid poor ones. We deliberately use statements of praise or blame. We give and withdraw privileges, often in a public way. We use token economies, especially for children in special education classes.

How Can This Theory Help With Understanding Academic Motivation? There is no doubt that reinforcement can "work" in some cases with some students. Teachers have found that reinforcers can help in these ways:

- When faced with the promise of a reward or the threat of punishment, many children will respond with the desired behavior, at least in the short run.
- Behavior modification techniques can help to produce the individual and group behaviors conducive to learning.
- For some high-achievers, grades, awards, and recognition stimulate added effort.

Limitations of This Theory. There are several reasons why reinforcement theory cannot be a sufficient guide to classroom practice. There is increasing evidence that injudicious use of rewards and punishments and overreliance on them can backfire, producing the opposite of the desired long-term results. The child may come to see the reward as the important thing, not the task. There is some evidence that reinforcements may conflict with other ideas students have about their own performance and cause them to doubt the validity of the reward/punishment.

Finally, rewards and punishments work only if they have meaning to the child. Grades, for example, do not affect young elementary school students nearly as much as other considerations. Moreover, what we educators consider to be rewards may not be valued nearly as much by our students, who may seek something not necessarily associated with the learning task, such as the admiration of their peers. When teachers do not have control of the reinforcers that students really value, classroom reinforcement techniques are not effective.

Self-Worth Motivation - A Theory of Need Fulfillment

Many psychologists believe that human beings possess an intrinsic self-worth motive. In fact, the importance of self-worth or self-identity is an organizing principle of psychology (Covington, 1984). According to this theory, human beings are motivated to act so as to maintain personal integrity, in the broad sense. Figure 3 depicts motivation to preserve a sense of self-worth.

PEOPLE ARE MOTIVATED TO ACHIEVE AND MAINTAIN A SENSE OF SELF-WORTH.

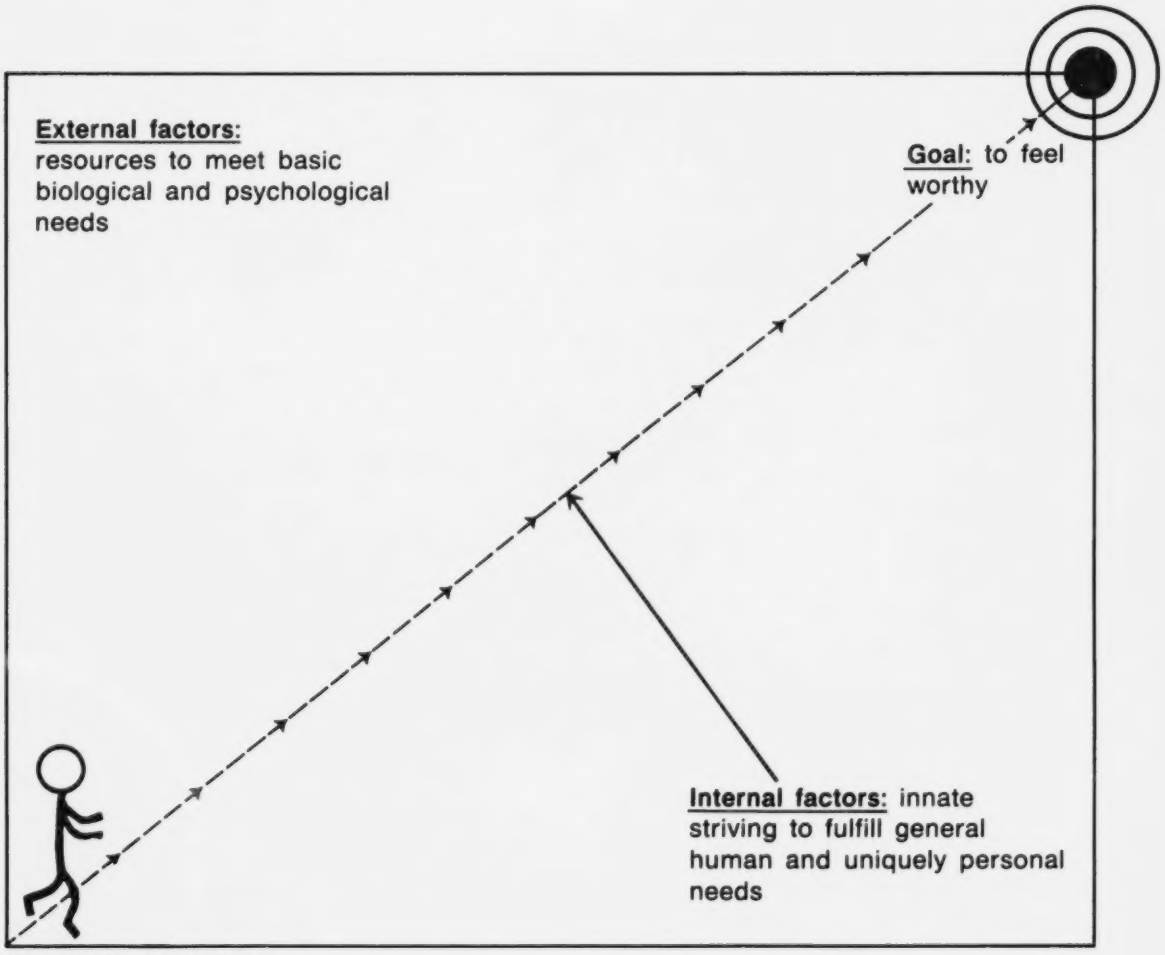

External factors:
resources to meet basic biological and psychological needs
Goal: to feel worthy
Internal factors: innate striving to fulfill general human and uniquely personal needs
The Individual Child

Figure 3. **SELF-WORTH THEORY**, based on ideas of a human tendency to fulfill needs and experience a sense of personal worth

The child seeks to answer the question: How can I satisfy my need to value myself for who I am and what I can do?

Maslow (1954) explained human behavior in terms of a hierarchy of needs, with physiological needs as the most basic, followed by needs for safety, belongingness, love, and esteem, in that order. The satisfaction of those needs makes it possible for the highest level of needs to emerge. That is self-actualization or the need to be. Each need is "prepotent" to the one above it in the hierarchy. Just as one who is deprived of water and food will seek those first, before worrying about belongingness, so will one who is deprived of a sense of esteem not be motivated to achieve full personal potential. Thus, self-actualization is the highest order of need, but it operates as the motivating factor only when the lower-order needs are satisfied.

How Can This Theory Help With Understanding Academic Motivation? The importance of self-perception is a common thread running through many approaches to enhancing student motivation in school (Uguroglu & Walberg, 1979). It may take the form of self-concept for achievement in general or for particular subjects, or it may focus on the extent to which success or failure are attributed to personal causes. In recent years, according to the National Association of Secondary School Principals (DeLeonibus, 1979), secondary school personnel have paid special attention to the link between self-esteem and motivation for schoolwork.

Instructional applications of self-worth theory are clear, and most teachers are aware of them. They include the following:

- Children who are physically uncomfortable -- hungry, thirsty, or tired -- need to have those physical needs met in order to take a sustained interest in learning.

- Children who have unmet psychological needs -- who are insecure, isolated, neglected, or rejected -- are likely to concentrate their efforts on security, companionship, and acceptance, rather than learning.

- When children experience respect and affection from their teachers and other students, they are more likely to make an effort to achieve learning goals.

- What students think of themselves in relation to their schoolwork affects their achievement by helping them to determine how hard and how long to try.

Limitations of This Theory. It is, however, improbable that this intrinsic source of motivation alone can empower children's efforts throughout their school experience. Often, educators have little or no control over the satisfaction of lower-order needs; yet they are still responsible for helping children learn. Often, a teachers' own demonstration of esteem and affection cannot wholly compensate when those are lacking from other persons significant to the child. In still other cases, the acceptance and respect the student seeks from peers and adults are not based on academic achievement and effort.

Motivation through Social Learning - A Theory of Fulfillment of Social-Personal Expectations

From the standpoint of social learning theorists, individuals come to believe certain ideas about themselves from their interactions with other people. They develop a set of expectations for themselves, which serves as a guide to their behavior. They also work to keep their private self-images consistent with the views they think others have about them (Covington, 1984). The dynamic forces of motivation through social learning are graphically portrayed in Figure 4.

Building upon prior theory and research, Weiner (1979, 1984) explained motivation to achieve in terms of what or who individuals think is responsible for success or failure. Do the students attribute the outcome to their own ability, to effort, to the difficulty of the task, or to luck? Although mood, fatigue, illness, and other temporary factors may be involved, students generally tend to consider their own ability and effort to be the most important. A record of successes seems to strengthen students' tendencies to believe that their level of effort was appropriate. Repeated failures dispose an individual to doubt his/her ability, with the ultimate effect of reducing effort. Unexpected outcomes seem to lead students to blame unstable causes, task difficulty, or luck, the latter in particular.

Bandura (1984) has presented a theory of self-efficacy, which holds that whether a person will attempt a task, how hard he/she will try, and for how long are dependent upon several, mostly extrinsic factors, which are: 1) information from past accomplishments, 2) knowledge about experiences of others, 3) verbal persuasion from teachers and other important persons, and 4) present physiological states. Thus, an individual's present and future efforts are determined mostly by past and present experience, both direct and vicarious.

How This Theory Can Help With Understanding Academic Motivation. Social learning theory emphasizes external experiences, but it acknowledges the importance of the individual's ideas and values. Teachers can extract several important principles for instruction from social learning concepts, as follows:

- Students' past experiences of success and failure create a set of expectations about what they can achieve in the future.
- Teachers' reactions and expectations, as well as those of parents, can influence student effort.
- Observation of the successes and failures of other students can also influence effort, especially when those peers are important to the student in question.
- Experiencing success, when the child thought there was a realistic chance of failure, can predispose him/her to try again. The opposite is equally true.

PEOPLE ARE MOTIVATED TO PLEASE AND BE LIKE THOSE IMPORTANT TO THEM.

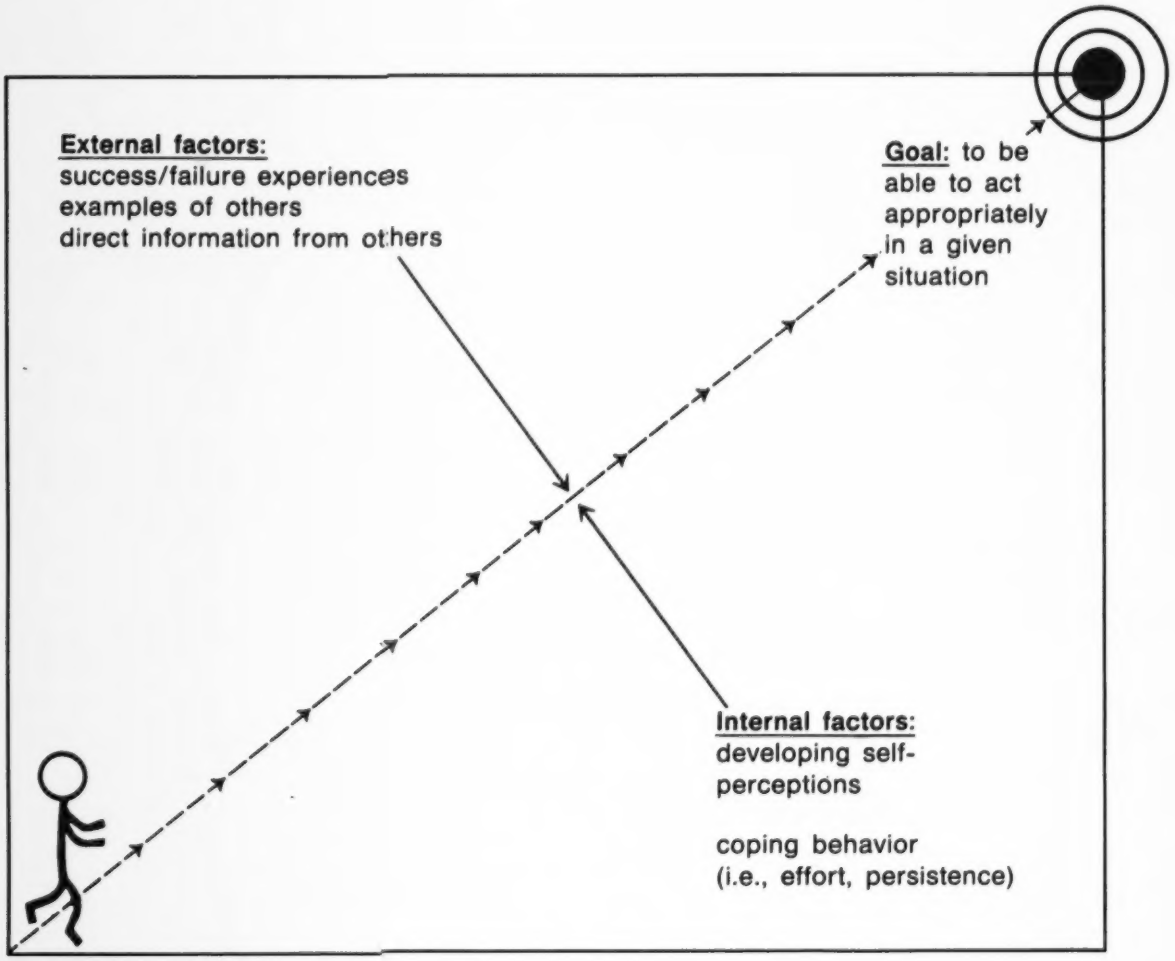


Figure 4. **SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY**, based on ideas of the importance of pleasing and being like significant others

The child seeks to answer the question: How can I achieve and maintain personal effectiveness among others?

Limitations of This Theory. Social learning approaches credit ongoing experiences, together with past experiences, for the level of effort and the persistence a person brings to a new learning challenge. For this reason, such theories of motivation are more hopeful than simpler reinforcement theories. Expectations which can be communicated by parents and teachers and the examples of other students hold some promise for affecting the motivation of individual pupils.

Still, the extent to which these separate factors may operate for particular children may not be easy to assess. The force of the factors probably varies by age and sex, or by circumstances unique to particular children. When Bandura's four factors of self-efficacy (see above, p. 14) are insufficient to stimulate students to exert the necessary effort on a learning task, teachers must explore alternatives in classroom motivation.

* * * *

THINK ABOUT IT.....WHAT DO YOU BELIEVE?

Do you behave so as to gain the approval of others? Do you avoid actions that might attract their disapproval?

Do you have a personal internal standard for what you choose to do and how you do it?

Do you find yourself attracted to new tasks and problems without quite knowing why?

Do you choose actions which are likely to bring money, commendations, and other rewards?

DO YOU DO SOME OF THESE MORE FREQUENTLY THAN OTHERS?

. . . . . .IN SOME SITUATIONS MORE THAN OTHERS?

IN YOUR OPINION, WHAT MOST DETERMINES THE CHOICES OF THE STUDENTS YOU TEACH?

Motivation to Achieve in School

While no one of the theories seems to explain all that we need to know about motivation to achieve in school, all of them offer rich and helpful ideas to help educators as they work with students. Motivation seems to arise from multiple, interacting causes, rather than from single sources or personality traits (Castenell, 1984). The interest and desire to learn and achieve in school probably come about from the way a student thinks about himself or herself in relation to a challenging situation (Maehr, 1982; Stipek, 1982).

Over the last 20 years, educational and psychological research have identified motivation as key to learning in school. Uguroglu and Walberg (1979) analyzed a collection of studies focusing on the relationship between motivation and achievement, in grades K-12. The studies were conducted between 1953 and 1976. Motivation was one of several components which accounted for the variance in achievement scores. The others were ability, quality of instruction, amount of time in learning, socio-psychological classroom characteristics, and educationally relevant aspects of the child's home environment. While motivation showed a relatively modest effect, as averaged across the studies, the various components appeared to interact in contributing to student achievement, thus multiplying the ultimate effect of each component. Since motivation may be a factor which educators can influence, it becomes a very important subject to teachers and administrators.

Even when we are sure that students have it, motivation alone cannot assure academic achievement. Other influential factors are the skill of the person performing the task, the organization of the task, and the environmental or interpersonal conditions that may help or hinder in the person's attention to the task (Maehr, 1982). There are certain behavioral patterns from which teachers, administrators, and parents can infer that students are motivated. When students seem to have a sense of direction, persist in a task, choose to go beyond the required activity on their own, and demonstrate performance, adults believe them to be motivated. Performance is at once an indicator of motivation and an outcome of the first four qualities.

In Maehr's (1982) view, individuals decide to invest themselves when there is a fitting combination of three conditions: 1) the possibilities for personal action; 2) self-perceptions having to do with a sense of responsibility, direction, and competence; and 3) personal goals, which lead the person to define success or failure or to identify the expected result. Personal investment may lead to enhancement of work-related achievement, personal growth, or life satisfaction. Maehr draws a picture of a student deciding how to invest his/her personal resources. (There are no students with nothing to invest!) The emphasis is on the student's choice: what does he/she prefer and to what extent?

Motivation, then, varies from individual to individual in relation to particular situations, including classrooms; students' personal and experiential characteristics; and broader social influences on personal values and interests. For these reasons, the focus, intensity, and duration of motivation vary widely among students. Motivation seems to be subject to a number of influences, such as:

- developmental differences between younger students and more mature students,
- individual characteristics of sex and socioeconomic background, and
- personal history of achievement.

These influences are briefly described in the second half of this chapter.

Motivational Differences Among Students

Developmental Differences

Differences among students by age and experience can be observed in thoughts and feelings they express. Younger children differ from older children in the way they think about ability and effort, the way they perceive themselves in relation to learning tasks, the balance between their positive and negative feelings about school, and the kinds of learning goals which interest them (Stipek, 1984).

Changing Conceptions of Ability. Among preschool and kindergarten children, optimism about their powers runs strong. For them, effort and ability are one and the same (Covington, 1984). "Failure" is simply a temporary inability to perform a particular task: since they are still rapidly acquiring skills and strength, what cannot be accomplished today is still quite possible tomorrow! The typical optimism is reflected in their confident predictions of what they will soon be able to do and in the kinds of career aspirations they announce (Nicholls, 1984).

Even repeated unsuccessful attempts at a task do not appear to erode the confidence of typical healthy preschool and kindergarten students. They are likely to lay any setback at the door of some temporary condition -- say, something in the environment or some physiological symptom. They continue to believe in their own competence and to hold high expectations for themselves. However, a readiness to try, try again, even in the face of defeat, does not last forever; the optimism decreases with added maturity and more experience.

By middle elementary school, children begin to consider ability and effort as two different qualities, although effort is, in their opinion, the truly important guarantor of achievement (Covington, 1984). Still later, by junior high school, students have come to believe that ability, for example, intelligence, is a stable, unchangeable trait. No amount of effort or dedication can alter it appreciably. For this reason, secondary school students usually do not place the same value on effort that teachers and parents do. In their minds, effort cannot guarantee successful achievement; ability does.

The age-related trend to equate ability with capacity makes students more vulnerable to threats to their self-esteem, which, in turn, increases the risk that their achievement and their enjoyment of learning will be adversely affected (Nicholls, 1984). Continued failure among middle-grade and older students erodes belief in their own abilities and makes effort seem futile. For a student who believes that ability is the necessary and sufficient cause of achievement, accelerated effort may seem truly

counterproductive. Another failure after effort is final confirmation of low ability! Moreover, a teacher's praise for effort and improvement may be unwelcome to an adolescent who takes it as condescension or pity for his/her basic lack of ability.

The changing concept of ability vs. effort seems to be an inevitable product of development, but its effects are heightened by the way many schools are organized. There is some evidence that competitive classrooms and limited rewards, such as grades, may help to accelerate children's tendencies to compare their own records with others' records (Stipek, 1984) and may increase the likelihood that children will come to believe that success for one reduces the chance of success for the rest of them.

Comparisons with Others. During the gradual change in their understandings of ability and effort, children also develop different ideas about their own performance in relation to the performance of others. In preschool and kindergarten, children often compare themselves with their peers, but social comparison does not seem to alter their basic optimism about their own abilities (Stipek, 1984). By the second or third grade, children evaluate their performances in relation to what others achieve, feeling good or bad about the comparison (Nicholls, 1984; Stipek, 1984). Teachers who are aware of this may find themselves feeling uncomfortable about praising one child's progress, lest the other children feel somehow rejected.

We cannot alter the course of development which is partly responsible for the different uses children make of social comparison. We can, however, reconsider some prevalent school practices which authorities believe can intensify or hasten children's natural tendencies to evaluate themselves in relation to others increasingly. To help students focus on their own progress and effort as long as possible, schools can give less prominence to practices which intensify social comparison, such as: age-grading of all academic activities, oral recitations in whole-class lessons, ability groupings, competitive learning activities, and the like.

Values and Academic Goals. Social needs are very important to children in the early years of school. Focused on their interaction with teachers and peers, they do not really understand or value academic achievement. To them, performance on school tasks is the same as effort, and both are inseparable from appropriate conduct. Later, students no longer need school for social experiences as much, and they gradually increase their concerns with academic performance, in large part because they have learned that academic achievement is important in the eyes of respected persons -- parents, teachers, and others. In adolescence, the strong concern for peer approval may lead some students to deemphasize school achievement and emphasize skills and interests in which they can feel successful and accepted. This is more likely for students who have not felt successful with academic work.

There may be developmental changes in motivational orientation. Younger children seem to be more intrinsically motivated: they find pleasure in

trying new tasks and working for mastery for its own sake. Older students report greater interest in extrinsic rewards -- grades, awards, and similar symbols of achievement. The transition from intrinsic interest in learning to concern with extrinsic goals is particularly noticeable for students entering junior high school (Stipek, 1984).

There is a similar age trend in attitude toward school, with young elementary school children the most positive. As they progress in school, children tend to become more negative in their evaluations, and this is again marked for junior high school students.

Motivational states do not generalize to all activities in which students are involved. Children in middle elementary school through high school have reported differing attitudes toward school and teachers, differing perceptions of their own abilities, and differing perceptions of adult expectations of them, in relation to school subjects, such as math, science, social studies, or English (Matthews & Chan, 1980). Apparently, students who feel inadequate in one area do not necessarily feel equally inadequate in another. Certainly by the time students are in high school, those with the motivation to continue schooling and to prepare for chosen careers have identified subjects for which they are more highly motivated: they have developed a sense of their own relevant abilities, they expect success, and they believe that effort will enhance their opportunities to pursue the field of their interest.

Changes in Self-Esteem. Overall, children in our society feel growing self-worth from childhood through young adulthood (Greenberger, 1982). There are ups and downs for most children, however. Stipek (1982) and Greenberger report that some school experiences can lessen self-esteem. The oldest children in any school seem to feel better about themselves than those younger. For example, 12-year-olds in the top grade of an elementary school have higher self-esteem than 12-years-olds in the first level of junior high school.

One of the ironies of our educational system is that it typically increases practices which refocus students' attention from the learning task itself to comparisons of their own performance with that of others. The shift of focus takes place simultaneously with developmental changes which intensify children's concerns about their abilities and about measuring up to others' expectations (see Figure 5, p. 21). It may be that classroom practices involving student competition, grading on a "curve," public recitations, and the like directly contribute to the widespread phenomenon of an age-related decline in motivation to achieve in school (Nicholls, 1984). These practices conflict with the basic human need to preserve a sense of self-worth. In addition, for many pupils, the competitive atmosphere can reduce rather than strengthen their desire to exert effort. Wanting to avoid failure but expecting it, they may be reluctant to try.

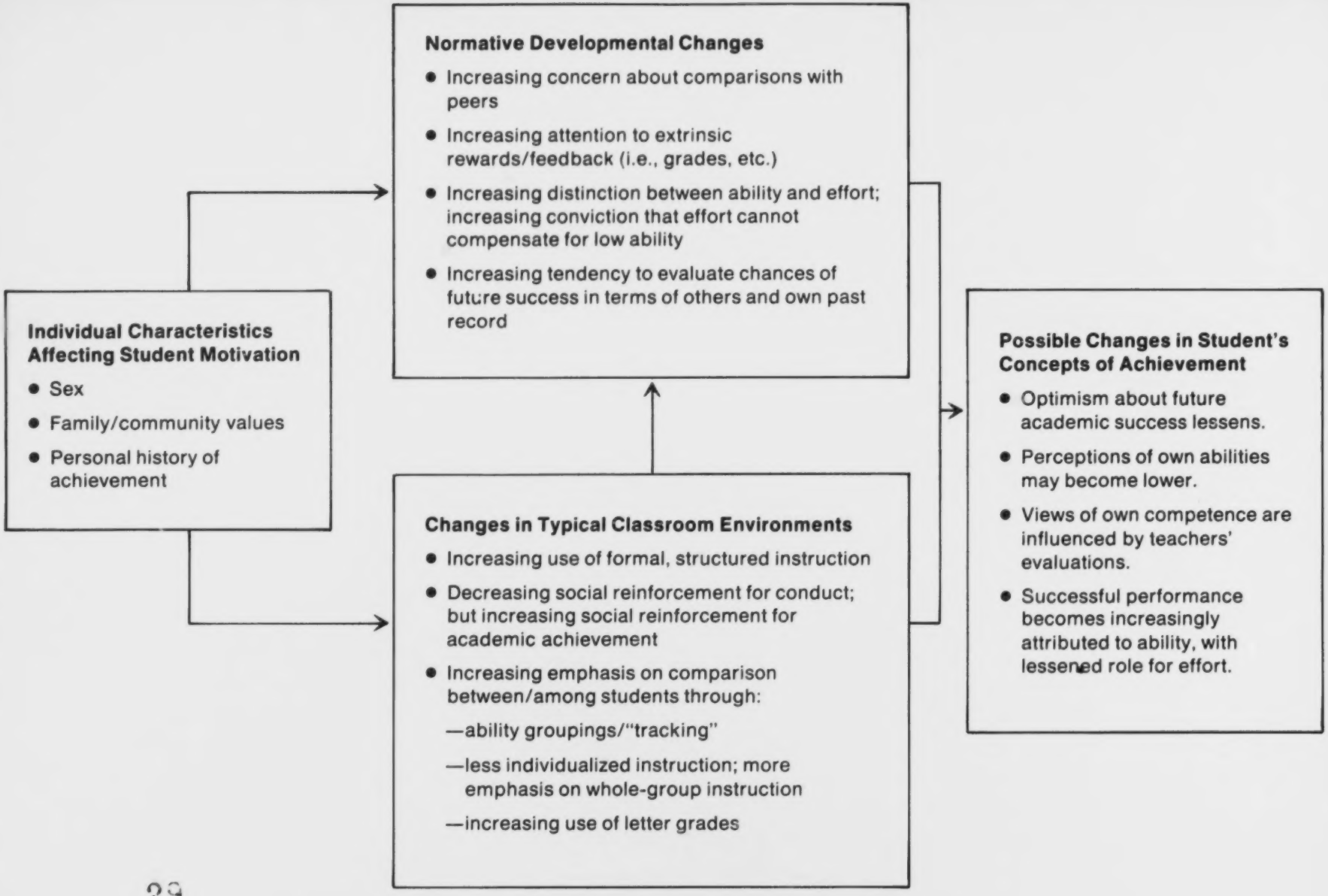

Normative Developmental Changes
• Increasing concern about comparisons with peers
• Increasing attention to extrinsic rewards/feedback (i.e., grades, etc.)
• Increasing distinction between ability and effort; increasing conviction that effort cannot compensate for low ability
• Increasing tendency to evaluate chances of future success in terms of others and own past record
Individual Characteristics Affecting Student Motivation
• Sex
• Family/community values
• Personal history of achievement
Changes in Typical Classroom Environments
• Increasing use of formal, structured instruction
• Decreasing social reinforcement for conduct; but increasing social reinforcement for academic achievement
• Increasing emphasis on comparison between/among students through:
—ability groupings/"tracking"
—less individualized instruction; more emphasis on whole-group instruction
—increasing use of letter grades
Possible Changes in Student's Concepts of Achievement
• Optimism about future academic success lessens.
• Perceptions of own abilities may become lower.
• Views of own competence are influenced by teachers' evaluations.
• Successful performance becomes increasingly attributed to ability, with lessened role for effort.

Figure 5. **Interacting Influences on Student Academic Motivation.**

Hills, 1986
(See also Stipek, 1984)

Individual Characteristics

Studies of academic motivation among boys and girls have concluded that small, consistent differences may be present for some subjects or areas of learning activity. Girls report having as much interest in science as boys, for example, but they seem to be drawn to scientific subjects which can be learned primarily in school. Boys, on the other hand, show higher interest and achievement than girls in scientific disciplines with which they have become familiar through hobbies and their older male contacts (Steinkamp & Maehr, 1984). Girls seem sensitive to social expectations for sex-appropriate interests. They are more reluctant to admit to some interests publicly, even though they strongly disagree that they are less suited to science than boys. It seems that motivation for particular areas of learning may be affected both by opportunities to learn outside of school and by social expectations for males and females.

Negative social expectations may also affect motivational orientations of children from minority or low socioeconomic backgrounds. It is likely that a combination of factors may depress their interest in achievement: low expectations, repeated failure experiences, and, especially for the older students among them, doubt about the future utility of what they are learning. These factors have the effect of confirming the children's growing suspicion that they lack the necessary ability. That being the case, it is useless to try very hard. Instead, it becomes very important to protect self-esteem by choosing to engage in activities which will lead to success and approval, by claiming little interest in school achievement, or by attributing failure at schoolwork to other causes, including lack of effort.

Castenell (1983) believes that all adolescents have a need to achieve, but the goals they target are functions of social reinforcement. In a study of achievement motivational patterns among black and white eighth graders of both sexes and both high and low socioeconomic backgrounds, he found that white students were more likely to direct their motivation to achieve toward certain "traditional" targets, such as school achievement. Black students varied more in their chosen areas of achievement, some of them emphasizing goals in home and peer relationships more openly. Male students have more opportunity to work for achievement and more reinforcement for it than do female students. Castenell concluded that skills and attitudes developed through cooperative and interdependent activities are important in fostering students' motivation for academic achievement. These approaches may be more effective with minority children and, perhaps girls, than competitive and independent activities.

Personal History of Achievement

In our country, we tend to value human beings who have the ability to achieve. In their life experiences, especially school, many children come to believe that they must achieve in order to be acceptable to others and that failure makes them unworthy (Covington, 1984). As students accumulate experiences with success and failure, their reactions to new learning experiences and their expectations about their performance are colored by the past.

"If you will remember, Bobby, I urged you to study harder!"

Reprinted with permission.

A student whose past is marked by success experiences is likely to expect to be successful in the future and to attribute all those successes to high ability. In the event of a failure, such a student would probably attribute the misfortune to something beyond his/her control, like bad luck, a teacher error, or lack of effort, such as failing to study.

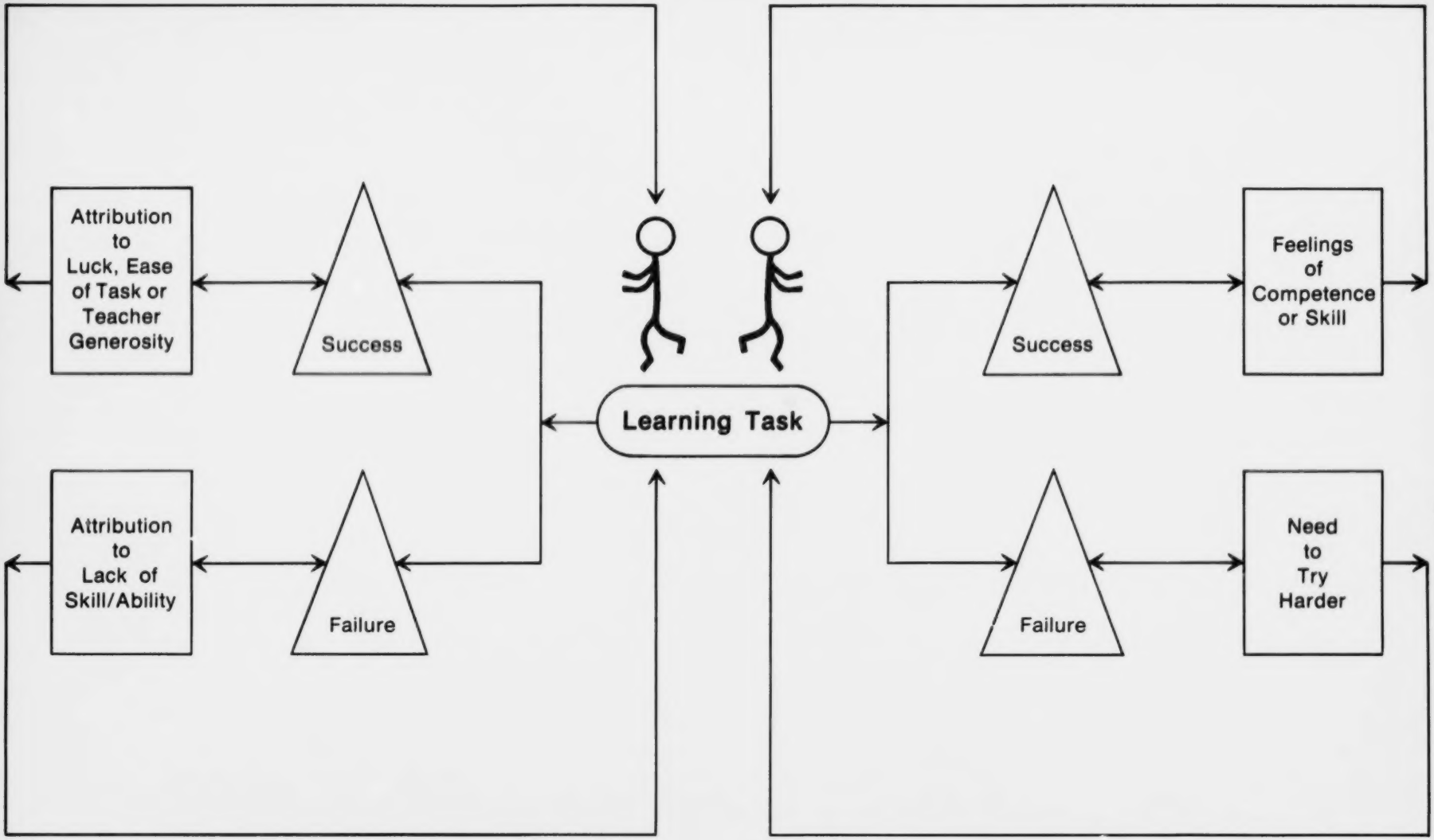
In contrast, a student accustomed to low achievement probably expects to fail, being already convinced of low ability. In the unlikely event of success, this student is likely to attribute it to a stroke of good luck, an easy test, and so on. Thus, both high-achieving and low-achieving students are predisposed by their school histories to look at success and failure and their causes very differently (Heibert, Winograd, & Danner, 1984; Nicholls, 1979).

Failure seems to have a particularly searing effect on students. Covington (1984) has summarized the dynamics of repetitive failure experiences on students as follows:

- Continued failure threatens a student's self-concept as an able person, causing negative feelings and loss of self-respect.
- Such a student learns to manage the level of effort expended, increasing it or lowering it, to reduce the risk of failing.
- Such a student learns to attribute blame to other causes, to give excuses in order to forestall others' perceptions that ability is lacking.

A student caught in this sequence of events is a student who has been transformed from success-oriented to failure-oriented (see Figure 6, p. 25). The final step is accepting failure and expecting it. Covington cites studies which show that first failures can lower self-estimates of ability, lower expectations for future achievement, and produce negative attitudes. Accumulating failure experiences accelerate the rate of these negative outcomes, as students come to doubt that effort can compensate for lacking ability and that excuses for continued failure are credible. As the syndrome develops, students come to discount effort as unavailing. In the terms of psychologists, the students then display "learned helplessness." They see themselves as unable to do anything about failure.

Some students may show a kind of "fear of success." They develop strategies to avoid the feeling of failure; the very strategies they choose also prevent success in achievement (Covington, 1984). For example, they elect not to participate in the learning activity, adopting techniques of inattention, absenteeism, minimum compliance with assignments, avoiding opportunities to recite, and so on. Or they make excuses, attributing failure to personality characteristics, such as overly high achievement goals, other more pressing priorities, nonconforming personal values, and the like. Unattainably high goals are a way of insuring against success, while avoiding the failure label at the same time. Covington labels such students as "failure prone." Their problem is not actually one of low achievement. It may instead be rooted in a combination of high value on achievement and self-imposed demands for unrealistically high standards.



CONTINUUM OF FAILURE—SUCCESS ORIENTATION

Figure 6

Hills, 1986
(after Covington, 1984)

THINK ABOUT IT.....WHAT DO YOU OBSERVE?

Do any of your students equate effort and ability?

Do any of them appear to doubt the worth of effort?

Do they compare their performance with others' work?

How does comparison affect them?

DO INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS SEEM MORE MOTIVATED IN SOME SITUATIONS THAN OTHERS? IF SO, WHAT CONDITIONS ARE INVOLVED?

THINK OF ONE STUDENT WHO SEEMS INTERESTED AND CONFIDENT AND ONE WHO DOES NOT. WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT THEIR HISTORIES OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE?

CHAPTER IV

ENHANCING MOTIVATION: WHAT CONDITIONS CAN STRENGTHEN STUDENT INTEREST AND EFFORT?

Equal opportunity is the promise of America. In education, that means that every student should have the chance to achieve the most and best possible. Enhancing student motivation is one way to reach this goal.

While we cannot equalize all children's abilities or backgrounds, we can work to elicit the greatest possible interest and effort from them all. There are several good reasons to adopt this as a working goal (Nicholls, 1979; Nicholls & Burton, 1982), for example:

- Student interest provides feedback which teachers may use to help them monitor their own performance and make appropriate modifications.
- High student motivation, together with suitably varied materials, assures that students can find learning experiences to match their individual abilities and needs.
- Interest is a positive sign of students' learning.

In Chapter III, we considered theories and research indicating that motivation varies from student to student, by age, by kind of task, by social environment, and by individual life experiences. In fact, motivation may be amenable to change, given certain conditions (Miller & Crano, 1980). What are those conditions, and how can educators bring them to pass? How can schools strengthen students' desire to achieve and the effort they are willing to expend?

In this chapter, we will review how student motivation can be affected by:

- particular school and classroom organizational patterns;
- expectations of others, particularly teachers and parents;
- teacher behavior; and
- administrative practices.

School and Classroom Organization

Schools should be organized so as to foster three kinds of motivation which contribute to student achievement (Stipek, 1982). These are:

- **achievement-related cognitions**

  Students can be taught the relationships between effort and ability. They can also be taught steps to monitor their own thinking and problem solving.

- **interest in learning**

  Schools should work to maintain students' intrinsic interest in learning. Learning "for its own sake" will help students in secondary school and later, when extrinsic reinforcements are not always readily available.

- **self-direction**

  Schools should provide ample opportunities for independent, self-directed learning, both to stimulate students' interest in school and to prepare them for post-school challenges.

Goal Structures as Motivational Systems

School instruction is carried out through three basic kinds of goal structures: competitive, cooperative, and individualistic. Each of these exerts different kinds of influences on students' motivation (Ames, 1984; Covington, 1984; Nicholls, 1979, 1984). Ames describes the ways these goal structures work to draw out students' interest and affect their values for the school setting:

- **competitive**

  The emphasis is on ability. Demonstration of ability results in achievement and is a source of satisfaction to the achieving student. Competition carries the implication that a few succeed, while many others fail.

- **cooperative**

  The focus is on an individual student's obligation to the group's work. Achievement is a shared responsibility. Satisfaction comes from contributing to the group effort.

- **individualistic**

  The focus is on the effort of the individual student and his/her coping appropriately with the learning task. Satisfaction comes from progress toward the goal and from efforts exerted to reach it. The psychological impact of the respective goal structures will be discussed later (see pp. 55-59).

There is evidence that each of the goal structures can be useful for some kinds of learning. However, the competitive has been greatly overemphasized in many schools in our country. Overreliance on competition tends to diminish intrinsic interest in learning, to favor a few students at the expense of many, and to hasten the conviction of significant numbers that they have insufficient ability to achieve and therefore should not even try very hard.

Typical School-Related Tasks

Some kinds of learning activities are naturally more interesting to students than others. The attributes of these kinds of activities have been described by educational psychologists (Maehr, 1982; Stipek & Weisz, 1981) as follows:

- They seem to stimulate intrinsic motivation because they involve elements of novelty, surprise, and challenge.
- They seem desirable to the student because they are acceptable as valid and desirable in the eyes of the student's family and/or peers.
- They give students a large measure of responsibility for their own learning and task completion, enhancing their own sense of control.

Research shows that a given instructional practice can have different effects on pupils in the same classroom. Thus, a particular teaching strategy may elicit interest and renewed effort from some pupils while simultaneously dampening the motivation of others. For example, high achieving students may relish opportunities to compete against their peers and may welcome frequent opportunities to show what they know on tests. For less confident students, however, the same activities may be sufficiently threatening to dampen their enthusiasm and curtail their willingness to try. Because of differences like these, it is important for teachers to vary their instructional strategies, to emphasize learning tasks of intrinsic interest whenever feasible, and to select approaches which are both encouraging and challenging to the greatest number of students. In general, also, it is wise to keep students focused on the learning task itself, rather than a grade or a competitive event, which can provoke anxiety in some students and divert their attention from what and how they are learning.

Lower Elementary Grades

Young school entrants are highly optimistic about their own abilities, are motivated to please the adults important to them (especially parents and teachers), and are basically curious and motivated to try new learning experiences. Noting these characteristics, Stipek (1982) recommended that the National Commission on Excellence in Education support small classes for the youngest students. Smaller class sizes for kindergarten, first, and second grades would help to assure that children have numerous chances to satisfy their curiosity, to try for learning goals repeatedly without debilitating anxiety about failure, to experience their teachers' interest and approval, and to have their progress and problems duly noted by the teacher. Teachers in classes small enough to enable them to know all the children well would be able to meet individual needs for self-worth and challenge, could see that students do not "get off on the wrong foot," and could reinforce the role of interest and effort in achievement.

Retention and Promotion

In recent years, there has been a nationwide trend to raise standards of achievement in schools. In many school systems, one outcome has been an increase in the number of students who were retained to repeat a grade. Those failed students have urgent needs: they need instruction carefully targeted to remedy their original problems and support for threatened self-esteem, which is essential to their motivation to continue trying.

School systems need informed, research-based rationales for establishing standards and practices in promotion and retention. Many studies indicate that retained students and comparable students who were promoted either do not differ significantly in subsequent achievement or that the differences favor those who went ahead (Norton, 1983; Shepard & Smith, 1985; Thompson, 1980). One can reasonably conclude that the next steps in learning can take place in either setting.

Retention in itself cannot solve the problems of low achievers. The stigma of failure may actually limit the learning opportunities of retained students, if they are treated as non-learners. Remedial efforts must be tailored to stimulate renewed interest in learning and to counteract feelings of failure. Otherwise, non-promotion may, in fact, contribute to lowered self-esteem, promote discipline problems in school, and add to the risk that a student will become more prone to personal maladjustment (Norton, 1983). Apparently, the best course involves instructional strategies to protect children from failing to achieve in the first place and timely intervention strategies when problems first appear.

Influence of the Social Group

Motivation to attain a personal goal is universal, but the nature of the goal varies according to particular life experiences and events (Castenell, 1984). Older children and adults are usually aware of their motivation to achieve, since it is shaped by social influences which they understand. Multiple social influences are afoot in classrooms. In these settings, students are motivated to seek a variety of motivated goals, only one of which is academic achievement (Weiner, 1979).

Students grow, develop, and try to be competent in three major sociocultural arenas. These are family, school, and peer group. If there is agreement on what is desirable and important among these three, students are likely to be motivated to achieve within that consensus. In the absence of agreement, students will have to choose goals which are in accord with one or two of the parties, risking disapproval from the remainder, or to choose goals which are unimportant or alien to all three.

Within classrooms, social influences on the motivational orientations of particular students come from the following (Maehr, 1982):

- Peers affect students' motivation by communicating their expectations and values. This influence is increasingly important from the middle of the elementary school years, peaking in early to mid-adolescence. For many young people, it subsides in later adolescence, as they pay more attention to their own long-range plans and their developing individuality.

- Parents and families affect students' motivation through long years of communicating values and expectations and through the example of older family members. There is evidence that the influence of parents remains relatively strong throughout the years of childhood and adolescence, even though dependency needs are outgrown and the social world of children expands considerably.

- Teachers also affect students' motivation, not only through the way they teach -- the instructional competence and intrinsic interest which they infuse into classroom experiences -- but through the expectations they convey, through the roles they model for students, and through the possibilities they open up for students.

The expectations communicated by others, peers and especially parents and teachers, can be positive or negative, conscious or unconscious, unselfish or biased. In any case, they influence the interest and effort students invest in schoolwork and help to determine the level of importance school holds. Maehr (1982, p. 30) adds: ". . . any discussion of why a student does or does not invest his/her time, talent and energy in a particular situation must consider the expectations that exist for this student in that particular situation" (italics added). The student, like any human being, must always balance role, status, and group membership with the achievement possibilities.

It thus becomes very important for educators to do what they reasonably can to help develop a consensus about worthwhile achievement goals, so that the work of the school appears valid to parents and community and is enhanced in the eyes of students. The process of arriving at this kind of three-party agreement and some exemplary, attainable behavioral standards which might be derived consensually are treated in a publication of the New Jersey State Department of Education, Identifying and Fostering Positive Student Behavior: The New Jersey Project on Student Expectations (Hills, 1985).

Because of the significant influences brought to bear on achievement motivation by social groups, Klausmeier (1980) recommends the following arrangements for curriculum, instruction, and advising:

- The advice given to students about instructional opportunities should be individualized.

- The kind of planning, monitoring, and evaluating of students' individualized educational programs now done for handicapped students should be extended to as many other students as possible, particularly for those whose motivation for schoolwork is problematic.

- Opportunities to engage in experiential learning, including work away from the school site and other informal settings, should be available for interested high school students, so that they can coordinate their own interests with the expectations of adults in their communities.

- Students' parents should be involved in educational planning with their children and their children's educational advisors or teachers.

Teacher Behaviors Which Enhance Motivation

As noted in Chapter II (see p. 5), teachers play an indispensable role in student motivation. What they do can go far toward determining whether students will feel effective in school and will remain interested in learning. The ideal motivational state for children in school involves not only a positive set toward learning in general but also some specifically school-related attitudes (Matthews & Holmes, 1983), such as:

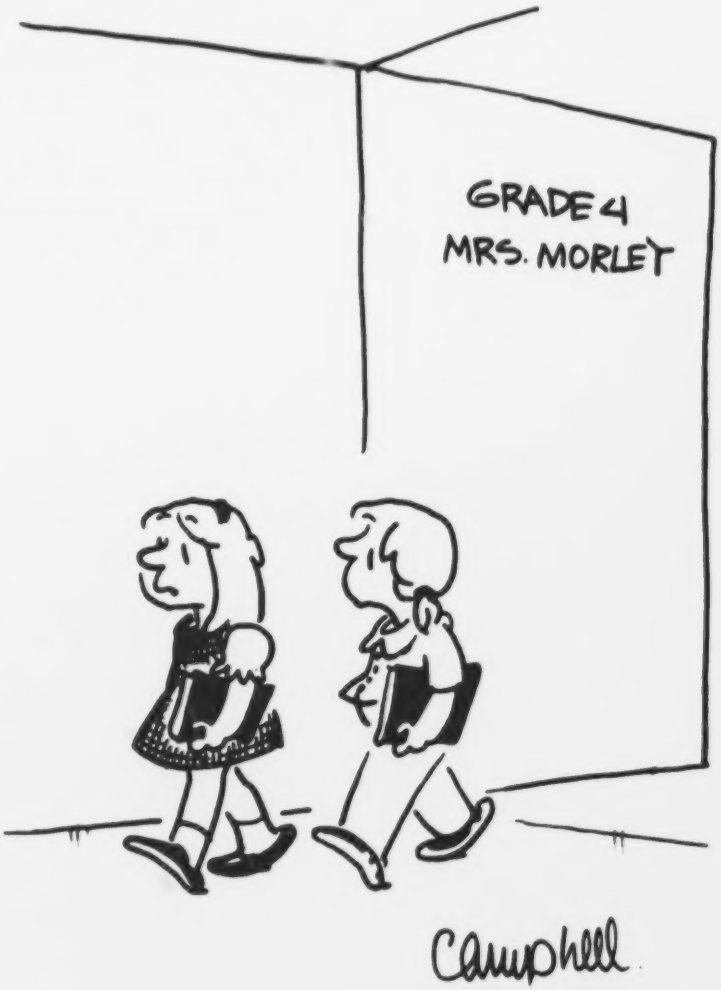
- positive attitudes toward teachers;
- perceptions that teachers expect and value academic performance;
- belief that school performance is pertinent to success and happiness in life; and
- positive self-concepts of ability to perform successfully in academic work.

Effective teachers have been observed and their instructional procedures analyzed and described in the vast literature on effective schools and classroom management. Basically, they engage in practices which help the greatest number of students learn as much and as well as possible. Those practices include: 1) increasing academic learning time, 2) rewarding achievement appropriately, 3) assuring that teachers and students interact in the course of the learning activities, 4) having and communicating realistically high standards for students, 5) monitoring student performance and giving students frequent feedback; and 6) selecting the appropriate unit of instruction -- individual, small group, or whole group (Davis, 1985; Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984).

To carry out these processes and procedures successfully over the course of their work with particular students, teachers must act deliberately to stimulate academic motivation among students. To Brophy (1982, p. 3), academic motivation is ". . . the tendency to approach tasks with serious intent to do them carefully and get the benefit from them." This goes well beyond the obligation simply to complete the tasks. What teacher behaviors are likely to foster this kind of motivation among students?

They Communicate Their Own Enthusiasm

Teachers seem to infer that students are motivated by observing the extent of their interest in lessons and in related activities going beyond (Nicholls, 1979), and they use that demonstrated interest as positive feedback about their own teaching effectiveness. It is reasonable to conjecture that a similar kind of interpretation is made by students about teachers. Teachers who seem interested in their subjects and give evidence of related, extended interests probably invest their instruction with added attraction to many students.



"Mrs. Morley's all right for a couple of hours, but then I start getting the urge to change channels."

Reprinted with permission.

Observation of effective teachers indicates that they communicate enthusiasm and exuberance which rivet the attention of students (Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984). They vary their vocabularies and their vocal delivery; they appear alert, with animated faces; they use gestures and body movement frequently to demonstrate points; their faces reflect changing emotions; they exude energy; and they demonstrate acceptance of students' ideas and feelings. These are not necessarily inborn characteristics of just a few fortunate teachers. Studies show that these behaviors can be learned by teachers who were not "born" with them!

They Make the Most of Class Time for Learning

There is some evidence that teachers can raise academic performance in three different ways: 1) reinforcing academic performance directly; 2) reinforcing non-academic behaviors that may help with academic performance; and/or 3) reinforcing both (Walker & Hops, 1976). Hawley and colleagues (1984) have listed the specific ways effective teachers carry out these reinforcements:

- They stress prevention over remediation, by
  - -- structuring physical space
  - -- managing time efficiently
  - -- keeping students' attention focused and engaged
  - -- holding students to behavioral standards
  - -- giving students responsibility
  - -- pacing their rate of work
  - -- using advanced organizers to help prepare them for learning
- They reward student behaviors which facilitate learning, such as
  - -- attending, volunteering, and following directions, which are known as student "survival skills"
  - -- sincerely demonstrating positive attitudes
  - -- appropriately interacting with teachers and peers
- They use interactive teaching strategies, by
  - -- managing students' involvement so that it is academically-oriented
  - -- combining personal control of lessons with active learning opportunities for students

- They have high expectations for student learning and make sure that students get the message, by

  -- practicing equity in opportunities for students to take part in lessons and recite

  -- giving clear, informative, and frequent feedback to all students

  -- adjusting expectations of individual students realistically, that is, making them sufficiently high to challenge but not so high that students are wary of trying

- They select units of instruction to meet varied learning needs and abilities, by

  -- teaching whole classes when it is appropriate

  -- working with small groups when student variation is pronounced

  -- working one-to-one with children who need special help with a learning task.

They Stimulate Students' Intrinsic Motivation for Learning

Teachers can take some cues from the innate motivation to learn which young children demonstrate so well. To maintain that kind of interest in learning and exploring for their own sake, Stipek (1982) advises teachers to:

- base instructional goals on individual mastery rather than comparative performance levels;

- emphasize individualized and less formalized instruction;

- include a sufficiently wide selection of learning activities to allow all students to demonstrate competence; and

- analyze "errors" students make in learning as one way of assessing their progress.

This latter point may have been under-emphasized in both preservice and inservice training of teachers. Making errors is normal in learning. In fact, error analysis is both a useful indicator of progress in learning and a diagnostic tool for teachers who are attempting to plan next steps (Goodman & Goodman, 1982). Student errors should be guides for instructional planning, rather than simply a basis for grades.

Stipek (1982) also recommends that teachers use principles of intrinsic motivation to the fullest extent. For one thing, it is easier and more natural to work with students' existing interests. For another, there is considerable evidence that external evaluations of students' performances work to direct their attention to the external evaluation and away from the task. There are many cases in which the result dampens or altogether

eliminates intrinsic interest in the learning task. While not all school related tasks can be intrinsically motivated, learning activities of high interest (for example construction projects, simulations, and the like) can be made contingent upon pertinent learning goals, such as mathematical processes (Stipek, 1982).

Pursuing principles based upon competence motivation, teachers can incorporate paradoxes and incongruities in their instruction. Cognitive conflict has the power of arresting student attention and exciting curiosity. Teachers may present such intellectual surprises in the form of novel events, unexpected experimental outcomes, or inquiry. It is human nature to need to investigate unexpected or unknown phenomena and clear up uncertainties (Piaget, 1970).

They Encourage Autonomy Among Students

For sustained academic motivation, students must take charge of some aspects of their own learning: their goals, their standards of performance, the level to which they aspire, and/or the pace of their progress (Stinson, 1984, p. 179). Unless they do so, their motivation to achieve in school is unlikely to endure, and their chances of achievement are less probable. Stinson has listed some practices that encourage students to undertake the desirable responsibility. They are:

- The teacher determines criteria for mastery.
- The teacher and the student negotiate and ultimately agree on goals for the student.
- The teacher ensures that instruction will be individualized in its effect.
- The teacher and the student reach an understanding that criteria for evaluation will be based on student performance in relation to the learning goals.
- The teacher's evaluation is based on the comparison of the current level of the student's performance with the previous level of performance on similar tasks.

It is very important that the learning goals be realistic. When students fail to meet realistic goals, it is easier for them to assume personal responsibility. Unrealistic goals encourage students to attribute responsibility to someone or something else. As a corollary, it is essential for sustained academic achievement that students can reward themselves for their own performances, for example, through a sense of pleasure or pride. This is the kind of reward that is always possible, since it is not dependent on outside sources.

Children with a history of failure probably learned to make excuses in order to preserve their self-esteem (see pp. 22-24). The course of their

achievement motivation has progressed in a negative direction. Can encouragement to be autonomous redirect their attitudes toward schoolwork? The answer is a qualified yes.

Experiments in which failure-oriented students were retrained showed that they could change their perceptions of their own part in learning. When they were taught to attribute any failure to a specific lack in personal effort, they began to persist longer at learning tasks (Stipek & Weisz, 1981). DeCharms (1984) worked to change students' perceptions of themselves in terms of causing instead of simply experiencing events. Students who came to see themselves as agents displayed more interest and effort in setting their own learning goals and assuming responsibility for their own performance.

They Help Students Become Aware of Their Own Learning Processes

Awareness of their own learning processes can heighten students' interest in learning more. Knowing what they know and how they came to know it is self-motivating, since it adds to feelings of self-worth and personal competence. Teachers can inject instruction in metacognition into almost any subject by:

- **helping students become aware of their own thinking**

  Teachers should ask students to identify what helps them in specific learning tasks, how they arrived at a solution, and what makes them confident of an answer.

- **making sure that students know what their purposes are in a learning task**

  Teachers should find ways to confirm that students are aware of their objectives. Such knowledge is essential for successful task completion.

- **having them monitor their own learning**

  Teachers can ask students whether their own responses make sense to them, thus transferring responsibility to the students. In the long run, teachers want students to be self-monitoring, since competent fulfillment of most life tasks requires continual self-evaluation and self-correction. This is another reason for keeping students' attention and interest focused on the learning task, rather than a reward, such as a "perfect" paper, an A grade, and the like.

- **giving ample opportunities for students to be self-corrective**

  When students can take the risk of making a mistake, have a chance to think through steps again, and change a response upon further reflection, they may well become more intrinsically interested in learning.

"I suggested you spend your time more wisely, Harold. I didn't tell you not to come to school!"

Reprinted with permission.

Studies of students who are taught strategies for thinking and problem-solving suggest that their motivation is strengthened in several ways: 1) they are likely to become more actively involved in learning activities; 2) they attend more closely and appear more interested in the objectives; 3) and they seem more able to apply their thinking processes to new and more difficult situations (Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984).

They Make Rewards Available To All Students

In many classrooms, rewards are in very short supply. There are not enough to go around, and the shortage forces students who cannot attain them either to try to avoid failure or to accept it as the lot they "deserve" because of deficient ability. Covington (1984) advises that teachers rectify conditions that require such unfortunate choices by:

- **increasing the number of available rewards**

  Teachers who stimulate motivation for academic achievement work for equity in incentives. There should be a reward for all students, whatever their basic ability levels may be. This can be done by emphasizing competition with an absolute standard, not a class norm; by having students compete against their own past records; and/or by focusing attention on group achievement goals and group rewards.

- **strengthening the students' awareness of the relationship between their efforts and their achievement outcomes**

  This can be done by breaking a learning task into small subtasks, so that, as they proceed, students have more opportunities to succeed in small ways and to understand where their difficulties lie.

- **enhancing students' opportunities to feel good about their efforts and accomplishments**

  The foregoing suggestions regarding sufficient rewards and effort-outcome linkages will help to assure that students really experience success. The positive reactions of teachers to such minor triumphs and the natural enhancement of student self-respect will contribute to improved attitudes toward school and schoolwork.

The Role of Administrators

Much of what administrators must do to foster student academic motivation is indirect. Administrators are responsible for setting an example and establishing an atmosphere for high levels of motivation for both teachers and students. It is especially important that school principals take the lead in creating a positive school climate in which teachers can work with students in the stimulating and supportive manner which enhances their self-esteem, confidence, and enthusiasm for schoolwork. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (DeLeonibus, 1979) advises that principals adopt as personal priorities these actions and attitudes:

- have high expectations for their schools and communicate the belief that the staff and students can fulfill them;
- give positive, informative feedback to staff;
- communicate pride in achievement of staff and students;
- involve staff in decision making, and give them significant responsibilities; and
- provide opportunities for teachers and other staff to experience success.

More specifically, according to Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, and Hasselbring (1984), principals can be effective in supporting teacher motivation by attending to the following strategies:

- articulating goals and criteria clearly and frequently;
- establishing collegiality as the normative condition of work in the school;
- providing regular opportunities for teachers to participate in establishing goals and making decisions about school practices;
- monitoring and evaluating teacher performance, based upon understood criteria;
- providing informational feedback to teachers;
- providing pertinent inservice training and professional development;
- helping teachers and staff discuss separate and mutual concerns; and
- keeping roles and responsibilities clearly defined and communicated.

Continuing inservice training and professional development are essential in this area of education, as in many others. In order to implement the kind of relationships and practices which affect student achievement positively, teachers must engage in complex planning and carefully designed strategies (Stipek, 1982). Besides, such concepts were not a part of the original training or earlier teaching experience of many teachers. For that reason, another important administrative responsibility is to assure that teachers hear about pertinent research and field studies.

In addition, the recommendations for school and classroom organization reported above (see pp. 27-28) should be heeded by principals. In many cases, support from the administrator is fundamental to educational change and improvement.

In Chapter V, we will consider concrete steps teachers can take in planning, teaching, and evaluating instruction and in interacting with students so as to strengthen the students' interest and commitment to learning.

CHAPTER V

ENHANCING MOTIVATION: WHAT STRATEGIES CAN TEACHERS USE TO INCREASE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO LEARN AND ACHIEVE?

Academic motivation comes about as a result of a complex combination of interacting factors (see Figure 7, p. 42). Innate needs, ongoing experience of success and failure, personal meanings students attach to their experiences, individual interests, and perceptions about the expectations of others are major influences the student brings to the achievement situation. Teachers bring a basic respect for the child, the art and science of their craft, expectations for student performance, honest information about how students are progressing, and evaluative reactions to students' achievements.

In this chapter, we will present practical examples of activities teachers can undertake in the course of classroom instruction to elicit and maintain student interest, effort, and pride in their academic work. These concrete suggestions are organized around five kinds of motivational supports which have proven to be helpful in enhancing student academic motivation. They are:

- meeting individual student needs;
- building positive attitudes toward school and teachers;
- attracting and holding student attention to learning tasks;
- organizing appropriate units of instruction; and
- reinforcing effort and providing incentives for achievement.

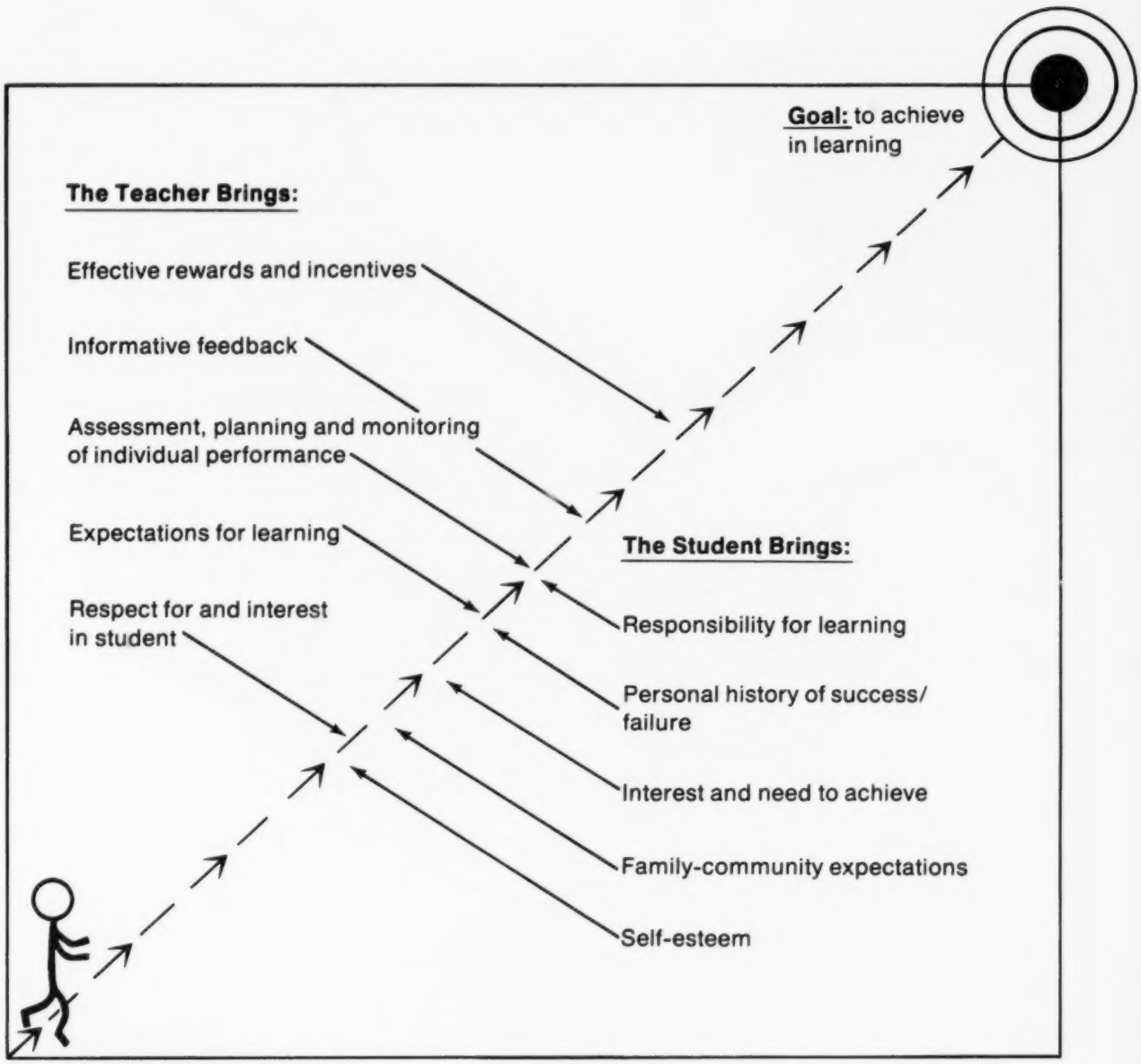


Figure 7. **ACADEMIC MOTIVATION.** What Teachers and Students Bring to the Achievement Situation.

The child seeks to answer the question: How can I achieve in school?

Meeting the Individual Needs of Students

Meeting individual needs does not require us to convince students that they all have equal abilities in all areas. Instead, meeting individual needs requires classrooms in which comparisons among children are relatively unimportant but increased understanding and added skill are very important. The essential principle is to focus on involvement in the learning task rather than involvement in comparisons with other students. "If teachers can maintain task involvement in all children, they will achieve a justifiable form of educational equality, and all children will develop their capacities to the fullest possible extent" (Nicholls & Burton, 1982, p. 371). In an atmosphere of this kind of educational equality, the probability of each student's sustained interest, involvement, and opportunity is very high, and individual needs are likely to be fulfilled.

To bring this kind of classroom environment into reality, teachers can plan and present learning activities based on the following principles:

.....

- **GIVE STUDENTS OPPORTUNITIES TO PRESERVE A SENSE OF SELF-WORTH.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Experiencing the respect of teachers and peers reinforces and validates children's motivation to maintain self-esteem. This in turn reinforces children's perception of themselves as potentially competent achievers in the classroom setting.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Effective instructional strategies which help students preserve a sense of self-worth are based on the teacher's recognition that they are individuals with unique interests and backgrounds.

.....

- **GIVE STUDENTS OPPORTUNITIES TO FEEL COMPETENT AND CAPABLE OF ACHIEVING GOALS.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Classrooms which foster students' feelings of competence help students to take increased responsibility and maintain interest in learning for its own sake (Stinson, 1984).

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Accepting and working with individual learning patterns requires reducing social comparisons and interpersonal competition among students. Teachers should strive to establish a classroom situation that communicates to students their potential to achieve, while giving them signs of acceptance and approval for their performance (Bartz, 1983).

It also entails being realistic about expectations, setting goals neither too high nor too low. The latter is a problem for many students, leading to boredom and sapping motivation.

- **INTERVENE TO HELP STUDENTS REGAIN SELF-ESTEEM WHEN NECESSARY.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

To the greatest extent possible, teachers would like to work with students in such a way that their feelings of self-respect and confidence are strong and nourished by achievement. However, many times our students have had their reserves of self-esteem diminished by previous experiences, or they face learning problems which threaten to weaken their confidence. In such cases, intervention to help them regain feelings of self-worth is essential so that learning can continue.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Intervention strategies involve assuring that students have opportunities to succeed, that they are helped to analyze their personal responsibility for achievement, and that they consider with the teacher or counselor the importance of effort in achievement.

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. **Customize assignments.**

   - Relate schoolwork to students' homes and community experiences.
   - Relate schoolwork to their career aspirations.
   - Relate schoolwork to their personal interests and contemporary "heroes."

2. **Personalize teaching and learning.**

   - Have younger students make collages entitled "ME," using pictures, words, and other symbols representing themselves. Display the collages and have students identify special interests or events depicted (Canfield, 1976).
   - Bring to class items that represent you, the teacher, in your out-of-school, as well as in-school, interests. Encourage students to do the same. This will encourage teacher-student interaction in broader human terms.

3. **Provide "perception checks" periodically.**

   - Have older students respond to incomplete statements, such as, "I'm proud that I accomplished _____," or "I feel most comfortable when _____." The

response can be anonymous. Students can generate additional items if you engage them in discussion about their perceptions or ask leading questions, such as, "What would help you enjoy the lessons more?" "When we do special projects, do you like best working in a group, in a team, or by yourself?" "If there were one thing you could change about this class, what would it be?"

4. **Give students some control over their learning activities.**

   - Invite them to propose ways to fulfill certain assignments.

   - Give them individual special project booklets. Identify an activity that is achievable by each student, one which challenges his/her thinking and enables the individual to expand on a given assignment. Offer a variety of vehicles for completing the task, and allow each student to choose.

5. **Incorporate into your lessons persons who are interesting to the students.**

   - Invite guests to speak or demonstrate skills and processes in career-related areas or adult role-related areas (computers, etc.).

   - Have students complete assignments "as if" they were known leaders in their own ethnic group, sports heroes, or mesmerizing entertainers.

6. **Help students become aware of their own learning processes.**

   - Teach students how to break down a complex learning task into its component sub-tasks. Direct them through the steps. Ask them what they did to arrive at a solution. Display reminders about generic sub-tasks on the classroom walls, and review them with the students.

   - Emphasize with them the relationship of their own efforts to the outcomes of the sub-tasks, so that they may experience a series of small successes.

   - From time to time, ask students to analyze and write responses to "What I learned about _____." Have them share their responses in teams or small groups and add any additional thoughts they have as a result of the interaction.

7. **Use a variety of assessment strategies.**

   - Place students in teams and ask them to rate learning materials or conduct group recitations in teams. Allow students to negotiate their individual ideas.

   - Use the assessment as the basis for having the student try again, rather than as a score or grade.

8. **Build in learning activities with "guaranteed" success experiences.**

- Reduce risk factors by planning activities in which everyone can succeed, such as a fair, demonstrations of individually chosen and presented activities, and the like.

9. Teach academic "survival skills."

- Give students deliberate practice in focusing and maintaining attention on assigned tasks. Help them become aware of their own task-related behavior. Reinforce their appropriate talk to you and their peers during learning, and discourage their inappropriate conversation (Hops & Cobb, 1974).

- Instruct them in principles of test-taking. List the steps, teach them in practice sessions, reinforce the steps through repeated practice, and provide continuous feedback in non-threatening ways.

- Reinforce good study habits by asking questions after homework assignments, such as, "Where did you study?" "How did you organize the assignment?" "When you faced a problem, how did you go about solving it?" "What worked best for you in that assignment?"

10. For students who have poor self-esteem, identify activities that increase their opportunities for <u>real</u> success.

- Appoint such a student to serve as team leader to coordinate an activity and report to class (when this is, in your estimation, sufficiently non-threatening to him/her).

- Provide students with options or alternative strategies for completing an assignment. Eliminate the "must" or "my-way-only" approach to tasks.

- Provide continuous encouragement and stimulation to the student by conducting periodic interviews to assess progress and identify areas where assistance may be required. The end goal is for the child to experience <u>success</u>.

- Help students to experience a feeling of control over what happens to them in the class, that is, being "agents" in their own destiny (deCharms, 1984), rather than just "pawns," controlled by the teacher and fate. This can be done by giving clear directions, allowing for and encouraging student initiative, avoiding patronizing statements ("let's show Johnny how to do it"), and communicating optimistic expectations and faith in the child's ability ("you can do it"; "I expect a lot from you").

11. Identify children who are "at risk" for diminished self-esteem and make special plans for supporting their self-esteem.

- Think through the group of low-achievers in your class and identify those whose self-esteem seems damaged. Analyze behavior which conveys unproductive attitudes, such as apathy, attention to peripheral aspects of classwork, failure to complete assignments, absenteeism, and adoption of unrealistically high goals.

- List those children who are or may be becoming social isolates in the class. Think of those who are new in school, have experienced frequent moves, have been retained, have been ill, or are going through a time of parental separation or divorce.

12. **Analyze your own attitudes and expectations of all individuals you teach in relation to their ethnic, language, and socioeconomic backgrounds.**

    - Try to become aware of any biases you harbor. Bringing such biases to your consciousness will establish the grounds for planning and presenting learning opportunities to all students fairly.

Building Positive Student Attitudes Toward School and Teachers

Teacher variables that influence students' interest and effort are the teacher's enthusiasm for teaching, expectations for students' learning, and respect for the students (Stipek, 1982). By the middle grades, students have developed awareness of their own respect for the teacher and the respect they perceive among their peers.

The respect students hold for teachers is rooted in the way students feel about themselves in classrooms. When they feel relatively competent, capable, and in control of the outcomes of their efforts to learn, they are more likely to respect teachers and to be influenced by them.

Students are also affected by their personal views of education. What does it mean for them in the present? Is it interesting? Does the school provide challenging social experiences? Does it offer opportunities to pursue special interests and satisfy curiosity? What does it mean for the future? Do the learning tasks seem to have future utility?

The following are principles for teacher behaviors which can help build positive student attitudes toward education:

.....

- **IDENTIFY PERSONS WHO CAN CONSTITUTE SIGNIFICANT OTHERS TO CHILDREN AND BE SUCH A PERSON YOURSELF.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

When they are very young, students have an inclination to please persons on whom they are dependent for their personal needs and whom they see as strong and skillful. Later they want to be like persons they admire. Teachers in elementary school can be such persons to young students and thereby influence them to enjoy school and take pleasure in attempting academic tasks.

Older students look for models, whose particular life views, values, and coping styles may expand their knowledge about their own

possibilities. Again, teachers can fill that role. In partnership with parents, teachers can undergird the motivational orientation of students, helping them to want to learn and achieve.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Since students are inclined toward positive affect when they feel competent and capable and tend to be influenced by significant adults, teachers can take advantage of both tendencies. Teachers can enhance motivation by offering students chances to control part of their learning environment and by communicating their own respect and recognition for the students' capacities.

.....

- **FOCUS STUDENTS' ATTENTION ON THE PRESENT AND FUTURE UTILITY OF SCHOOL EXPERIENCES.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Increasingly as they mature, students balance three sociocultural arenas -- home, school, and peer group. All of these are important, with the peer group peaking in importance during the adolescent years. It becomes difficult for many students to relate what they are learning in school with other objectives which often seem more important and more immediate. Understanding ways in which school achievements may make a difference now and believing that they will do so in future life can strengthen interest and elicit more effort from many students.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

To achieve this objective, teachers must work actively to relate school success to other areas in which students consider achievement important, such as interpersonal relationships, athletics, work, and aspirations for future careers and families (Bartz, 1983).

.....

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. **Match the teaching processes to the cognitive, emotional, and physical motor levels of the students.**

   - Communicate your own interest in the subject or the activity, and create suspense.
   - Use group alerting cues ("soon, you will need to ..."; "all of you should be watching for ..."; etc.), and let students know that future responses about a given event or topic may be requested.
   - Randomly select students to respond, and be sure to allow sufficient time for response, probing, and cuing when necessary.
   - Ask the group to commit themselves, taking a class vote on opinions, decisions, and questions.

- Listen, show interest in the students' responses, and communicate your concern and caring.

- Show that you recognize and accept signs of frustration, resentment, and discouragement. Then help the student over the hurdle so that small successes and hope may provide antidotes.

2. **Develop awareness of your own behaviors (gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, voice modulation, etc.) and the ways you may use them differently with different students (Wlodkowski, 1984).**

   - If possible, arrange for an observer or a videotape of a typical lesson, and analyze your own interpersonal behaviors with students. If neither of those is possible, try to "watch yourself," monitoring your behavior in relation to individuals in terms of:

     - non-verbal communication signals, such as proximity control, pausing for effect, using eye-contact (even staring), arching an eyebrow, clearing your throat; or flipping lights, sounding a tone, leaving the room, and so on

     - body language, such as the kind, timing, and frequency of gestures; facial expressions (grimaces, animation, pleasure, annoyance, etc.)

   - Consider what it would be like for someone who could see but not hear you. You might imagine yourself in a silent movie or videotape.

   - Consider the relationship of your body language and your non-verbal communication to the questions, responses, and other behavior of individual students. Consider also the relationship of your actions to individual characteristics of different students.

3. **State your expectations for all students at the beginning of the year and reiterate them, so that students can gain early insights into your values, sense of fairness, and standards for classroom performance.**

   - Elicit cooperation and boost students' confidence with statements such as: "All students can learn, and I will help every student enjoy it"; "In this class we value each other and need each other"; "When you enter this class, you join the successful company of 'life learning'"; "We produce excellent products here, with no 'recalls' or rejects."

4. **Select an outstanding humanitarian and designate a month or week for that person. Examples: Mother Teresa, Helen Keller, Martin Luther King.**

   - Assign teams of students to investigate the person's life and report to class. The context might be, "If you could walk in their shoes, would you? If yes, why; if no, why?"

5. **Attribute positive motivation to the entire class.**

   - Sprinkle comments like these through your instruction: "You (students) really are thinking about this"; "...really want to understand this problem"; "...are really interested in this." (Nicholls & Burton, 1982). "Where do we go from here? What should our next steps be?"

6. **Plan activities which increase students' awareness of the requirements of the world of work and the adult community.**

   - Invite persons from various occupational areas to present to the students what they do, the type of training they needed to prepare for the work, the environments in which they work, and the benefits they perceive in the work. Encourage the students to ask questions and the guests to respond about the relationship between schoolwork and the occupation.

   - Have career fairs to provide small group and one-to-one discussions on the same topics.

   - Arrange for students to get out of the classroom and into work environments interesting to them and relevant to their school assignments, for example, field trips, cooperative work experiences, interviews, and research assignments.

   - Establish a parental resource bank. Ask parents to identify skills and abilities that can be shared with students. Special projects involving parents could be planned throughout the school year. This kind of activity can be carried out on a school-wide basis, a departmental basis in secondary schools, or with cooperation among several teachers.

   - Have the students develop a community bulletin board. A classroom bulletin board can serve as an informal newspaper for non-academic events and other items of interest. Students should be assigned the responsibility of selecting, organizing, and updating information on the board.

Attracting and Holding Student Attention to Learning Tasks

Nicholls and Burton (1982) offered a useful list of factors which influence students' involvement in learning tasks. They included the following:

- characteristics of the learning material (i.e., the level of difficulty, the organization, and the content);

- the teacher's method of presenting the material; and

- personal-social factors (students' perceptions of the value of schoolwork, their feeling of self-determination, and the teacher's expression of belief in their interest and capability).

To stimulate motivation in classroom activities, teachers must secure the learner's attention and focus it on the planned learning tasks, arrange for the student to participate actively, reinforce the appropriate behavior, and establish the goals for the lesson (Klausmeier, 1980). Principles for accomplishing these requirements and practical examples follow.

.....

- **SET SPECIFIC GOALS AND COMMUNICATE THEM TO STUDENTS.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

When teachers set and communicate specific goals, the practice has a number of beneficial effects, both for students and teacher. Everyone involved understands clearly what is to be done. Specific goals seem to stimulate motivation better than non-specific goals do (Stinson, 1984).

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Setting specific goals and communicating them involve: 1) identifying what students should learn or do; 2) setting a criterion for performance; and 3) using the goals as a guide for the teacher's instruction.

.....

- **BUILD INTRINSIC INTEREST INTO THE TASK.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

It is common wisdom that students are more likely to attend and persevere at a task which in itself holds some interest for them. There is considerable evidence that students' personal investment in the task, rather than its outcomes, stimulates motivation (Maehr, 1984; Nicholls, 1984; Stipek, 1982).

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Intrinsic interest for students can reside in any of several aspects of a learning task, for example: the content, the teacher's mode of presentation, the activities necessary for students to complete the task, and/or the interest of other persons in the students' activities (i.e., peers, parents, etc.). Faced with content which is not of intrinsic interest, teachers may vary other aspects to elicit students' interest and investment.

.....

- **FOCUS ON THE GOAL AND THE NATURE OF THE TASK, RATHER THAN ON PERFORMANCE.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

There is research evidence that instruction with a task focus is more effective with less motivated students than instruction focusing on their performance (Nicholls, 1979). Emphasizing personal performance seems to be counterproductive in many cases: it shifts student attention away from learning, to self-interest or self-protection.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Instructional strategies which might help children want to do what teachers want them to do involve teachers' attributing the value of the learning to the nature of the task itself, rather than to something that will happen to the student as a result of it. Emphasis on the task also reduces the chance of a counterproductive emphasis on comparisons among students.

.....

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. **Vary instructional methods and materials, as well as the learning activities and processes you expect of students.**

   - Create as many learning situations as possible where students are active participants through games, role-playing, exercises, discussion, team projects, and simulation.

   - Encourage overt bodily activity through student manipulation of materials and construction of models, displays, art works, and the like. Request detailed observation and record-keeping experiments, field studies, and interviews.

   - Emphasize active investigative learning activities, such as scientific experiments, puzzles, and problems.

2. **Use inquiry methods whenever appropriate.**

   - Employ Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives to help students respond to different kinds of intellectual demands in content areas.

     -- **Knowledge questions**. Students are required to use rote memory to recall or recognize information. Example: "Who invented the airplane?" (Since this kind of question is so ubiquitous in instruction, teachers should try to reduce their use of knowledge questions.)

-- **Comprehension questions**. Students are asked to interpret, compare, or explain what they have learned. Example: "Could you explain in your own words the meaning of limited resources?"

-- **Application questions**. Students are asked to transfer knowledge to solve problems. Example: "According to our definition of legal rights, which of the following areas apply to your legal rights?"

-- **Analysis questions**. Students are asked to use reasoning prcesses to infer, deduce, and generalize. Example: "Why do people respond differently to crisis situations?"

-- **Synthesis questions**. Students are asked to think divergently and offer opinions as an intellectual response. Example: "What would an ideal family be like to you?"

-- **Evaluation questions**. Students are asked to make a judgment or appraisal. Example: "Which president has been most effective in supporting social service programs?" (See Cohen & Hills, 1985, for a discussion of several questioning systems useful for attracting and holding students' attention to learning tasks.)

3. **Develop contracts with students, based on their thorough understanding of what they have agreed to do and what you expect.**

   - In developing such contracts, give a student the chance to select from among options for content and method. Formal contracts between an individual student and the teacher should specify criteria, including time factors, and sub-tasks to be completed by the student and monitored by the teacher.

4. **Try the various instructional "tricks" of communicating your own enthusiasm to students, through varied use of voice, gestures, and other body language (see p. 48-49, above).**

5. **Renew your efforts to teach students "survival skills" in focusing and maintaining attention and using appropriate conversation and physical activity for particular learning tasks.**

   - When necessary, help students to become conscious and aware of the relationship between their overt behaviors and the attitudes and responses of you and their peers. (See p. 45-46 above.)

   - Give students informational but non-judgmental feedback about the relationship between their overt behaviors and their performance outcomes. Example: "You completed the assignment in the class time. I noticed that you really stuck to business today"; "I noticed that you did not have all your materials ready to begin. Do you think that had anything to do with what happened here?"

6. **Use principles of mastery learning, so that students can achieve larger learning goals, working successfully step-by-step.**

   - Break apart the larger task into small sub-tasks, and assign them to students in sequence, so that they proceed incrementally.
   - Relate progress toward the larger goal to the students' efforts.
   - Help students compare and contrast their achievement at the end of a given portion with their earlier status.

Organizing Instruction to Enhance Motivation

Teachers organize their classes in certain ways to fit the diverse needs of their students or to deal with the requirements of the content objectives. The three patterns of instruction are whole-class, small group, or individual instruction. Some teachers feel that either small group or individual instruction is indicated for students who are having difficulty. Others believe that they can meet individual needs effectively in the context of whole class instruction.

Research is not definitive on this matter. Good (1982) and Brophy (1982) recommend whole-class teaching, for the greater opportunity it provides teachers to stay involved with all the students simultaneously, monitor the learning attempts of all, and manage the classroom activity. By interacting with the whole class, individual students may also learn from observing other students. The real crux of the matter, however, is the way the teacher is able to manage the diversity among his/her students. It is difficult to meet individual needs when attempting to pitch instruction to an entire class (Hawley, Rosenholz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984). When teachers have skills in diagnosing individual learning needs and planning alternative approaches, working with individuals and small groups may enhance achievement opportunities for students.

Individualized instruction incorporates specific learning objectives for individual students, pacing for small groups or individual students, individualized diagnosis and prescription, and varied instructional plans. When it can be carried out effectively, it avails a student more learning time in which to experience success. However, the needs of all the students in the class must be balanced, and this places a significant burden on the teacher.

Organizing instruction to enhance motivation requires that teachers select the unit of instruction appropriately and vary it from time to time.

.....

- **SELECT THE APPROPRIATE UNIT OF INSTRUCTION IN ORDER TO MANAGE DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING NEEDS OF STUDENTS;**

AND

- **VARY UNITS OF INSTRUCTION TO PROVIDE FOR DIFFERENT KINDS OF LEARNING.**

HOW CAN THESE PRINCIPLES HELP?

Varying the instructional unit increases the teacher's options in designing work for students. Since students differ in many ways, including the orientation and level of their academic motivation, teachers can increase the probability of teaching to those differences with a variety of strategies at their disposal. Offering workable combinations of whole class, small group, and individual structures permits teachers to have sustained contact with students, to ensure their interpersonal observation and activity, and to see that they are involved in the classwork.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Regardless of the unit of instruction chosen, teachers must be good classroom managers. The aim of instruction is to see that students attend to the task, persist in it, attain the objective, and feel positive about their achievement, whatever the structure of the learning group. Since it is likely that there is no one best way to attain all instructional objectives, variety offers the best chance of meeting the most needs.

.....

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. **Provide the greatest possible learning time for all pupils by identifying and grouping: a) the kinds of learning activities that can be carried out efficiently in each of the three patterns; and b) the kinds of help that particular students need in order to achieve (Johnson & Johnson, 1975).**

   - Arrange for individual learning time for mastery of factual information and acquisition of simple skills.

   - Establish small groups and teams for learning which involves mastery, retention, application and transfer of information, concepts, and principles; strengthening of verbal abilities and problem solving; social-personal skills, such as enhanced self-confidence and expanded understanding of others' viewpoints; and creative abilities, such as divergent thinking and risk-taking.

   - Use whole-class instruction to initiate new learning units, to provide a common background for next learning activities in non-tool subjects, and to build a sense of class membership among all students.

2. **Involve students in working with each other, one-to-one.**

   - Peer tutoring seems to provide real benefits for the tutors, both because of enhanced self-concept and opportunity to clarify ideas when working to help peers understand concepts. The tutees also benefit from the cooperative spirit. They may find it easier to risk making errors and confessing to a lack of understanding with peers than with the teacher.

3. Establish a peer teaching-learning center (Hawley & Hawley, 1979).

Such a center symbolizes to students that: 1) the distinction between teacher and learner is often arbitrary; 2) that students have much to learn from each other; 3) that students sometimes can communicate more effectively with other students than the teacher can; and 4) that teaching something to someone else can help the tutor integrate and consolidate the learning better him/herself.

A peer teaching-learning center may be a place set aside in the classroom for a pair or a small group or a separate room or space in a hall outside the classroom. It can operate during a certain length of time at regular intervals or during times specified as needs emerge.

To counter the possibility of a caste system based on the tutor-tutee distinction, you may emphasize what the tutors gain from the experience in terms of their own learning, and you may require that every student learn at least one thing from another student in a peer-teaching situation within a certain timeframe.

Examples of such peer approaches and student learning teams are the Team Learning Project of Johns Hopkins University and the peer tutoring featured in several nationally validated programs (Sopris West, 1985). All these examples can offer ideas for restructuring your classroom so that there are enhanced opportunities for students to engage in cooperative learning environments and increase their learning time.

4. Maintain control of what is going on in the classroom at all times, being aware of what is happening with each student.

- Make rules clear and monitor their observance by:
  - -- involving students in establishing rules;
  - -- allocating time for presentation of rules and procedures;
  - -- communicating desired attitude and behaviors;
  - -- explaining rules and procedures in concrete terms;
  - -- giving feedback on how things are going in the class;
  - -- communicating consequences when there are rule infractions or abuse of procedures; and
  - -- reteaching rules and procedures when necessary.
- Hold students accountable for their own behavior. See that they understand what is expected of them. Observe their behavior, and discuss it with individual students, in relation to rules and procedures and to outcomes in learning tasks.

5. Make effective verbal communication a part of classroom objectives and instruction.

- Monitor levels of understanding for your instructions and for students' comments in class discussions. Examples: "This is what I heard you say. Is that what you meant?" "Does Monica understand what you mean?" "Do you understand what you are to do in this assignment?"

- Communicate on a person-to-person basis, trying to take the student's point of view. This is in contrast to communicating on a position-to-position basis, as the authority figure.

- Observe non-verbal communication signals from students and work to help them verbalize their reactions, so that you can help to deal with them. This places you in a position of being sensitive to the emotions of the students, while maintaining objectivity.

6. Model social-personal skills and techniques for the students.

- Take time to process students' comments so that your response will be a reasonable one.

- Demonstrate tolerance and respect through realistic objectives and assessment, a sense of humor, and an atmosphere which permits some "give and take."

- Demonstrate flexibility -- changing your opinion in the face of new information; altering rules and procedures for acceptable reasons; and so on.

- Allow students to ventilate negative feelings without taking personal affront.

- Overtly make a point of distinguishing between facts, feelings, and opinions. Discuss these differences with students, and ask them to distinguish one from the other.

Reinforcing Effort and Providing Incentives for Achievement

The three goal systems mentioned earlier (p. 28) incorporate certain kinds of rewards, and each kind of reward has implications for students' interest and effort. A summary of their uses in educational settings is shown in Table 1 (p. 59). There seems to be a legitimate place for each kind of goal system in education, and there seems to be no good reason to rely exclusively on only one.

A major problem lies in the fact that classrooms in the United States have placed heavy reliance on competition, with its use of social comparison as the basis of evaluation. In this context, high achievers have often been stimulated to accelerated performance and have often felt pleasure in their accomplishments. But it seems clear that their more positive motivation

results from the presence and the less-availing effort of lower achievers, who are not exhilarated by the experience. In fact, they can be damaged by the comparison (Nicholls, 1979), since the success of the high achievers means their own failure. Competitive reward systems yield limited benefits, but they may be useful for certain purposes and certain students, as shown in Table 1.

Cooperative approaches have brought about more positive attitudes toward school, increased self-esteem, use of classmates as an aid to learning, peer support, and increased time on task (Stinson, 1984). However, cooperative approaches must be carefully planned and managed. To be effective, they require:

- a high degree of structure;
- specified objectives and schedule of learning activities;
- individual accountability of cooperative members; and
- a well-defined group reward system (Hawley, Rosenholz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984).

Cooperative reward structures can produce a wide range of benefits in a variety of instructional objectives. Many authorities recommend combining cooperative approaches, such as teams, with competitive activities, such as team competition or team effort for a challenging task. In this way, the negative aspects of social comparison are reduced, while the dynamics of group competitive effort are retained.

Individualistic reward systems focus the students on their own past achievements, as they move ahead. Various forms of mastery learning are based on individualistic approaches, and they can provide real help to students in skill acquisition and mastery of factual learning (Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984). Individualized learning probably provides more time on task than other systems and is likely to reduce social comparison significantly.

As indicated, all three systems can be useful for certain purposes, and use of all three may help to: 1) insure against the debilitating effects of competition for low-achievers; 2) assure that all students will face personal accountability for their efforts, at least some of the time; and 3) provide all students with varied opportunities and incentives for learning. The following instructional principles can help teachers find and employ strategies to reinforce student effort and provide incentives for academic achievement.

Tab

The Relationship of Goals and Rewa

System	Goal	Basis of Eva
Competitive	Demonstrated ability	Comparison wit individuals
Cooperative	Responsibility to group	Comparisons of group
Individual-istic	Task mastery	Comparisons of self

(See Hawley, Rosenholtz, Good

le 1

rds to Student Interest and Effort

luation	Useful for Classroom Objectives of:
h other	Stimulating the top third (only) of the class Competitive skills; speed and quantity in simple drill
self with	Retention, application, transfer of learning Mastery of concepts and principles Verbal abilities Awareness and use of personal capabilities Role-taking abilities
self with	Personal acquisition of skills and factual information.

stein, & Hasselbring, 1984; Johnson & Johnson, 1975.)

- **TREAT ANY COMPETITIVE SITUATION AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION, NOT ANXIETY.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

There are many times in school and later when children must face competitive situations. Practice in competing may help to prepare students for such unavoidable experiences, if the practice contributes to growing self-confidence and facility. Specific, task-based feedback to students about their performance will help them concentrate on the task, face up to the particular difficulties they may be having, realize their successes, and make continued attempts (Cotton & Savard, 1982).

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

It is important to give students practice with competitive situations in which their performance is important and they will be evaluated. Especially for less confident students, however, such practice should be designed to insure feelings of success, as well as give them clear information about where they have "gone wrong" and what they need to do to improve performance (Stinson, 1984).

Group competition can be employed to help students become comfortable with competitive situations, while still benefiting from cooperative work with peers (see Table 1, p. 59).

- **REDUCE EMPHASIS ON MATERIAL REWARD SYSTEMS AND PROMOTE SOCIAL REINFORCEMENT SYSTEMS.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Research on the effects of material rewards has shown the dangers such rewards may hold for sustained interest in learning. Students are likely to come to want the reward and see it as the reason for trying. In many cases, the motivation they once felt is undermined (Nicholls & Burton, 1982; Maehr, 1984; Stipek, 1982). For this reason, replacing material rewards (prizes, token economies, and the like) with social incentives may serve to stimulate interest and effort in students and keep them directed to the learning task.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Since lasting effects on students' motivation seem to come from information and support from their teachers and the reactions of their peers, teachers are well-advised to make more use of social reinforcement. They may make peer interchange an integral part of lessons, systematically inform students about the interests and effort of other students, and establish team approaches in which students collaborate on tasks.

- **GIVE INFORMATIONAL FEEDBACK TO STUDENTS, NOT JUST PERSONAL PRAISE.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Recent work in the field of reinforcement has yielded some important conclusions for the ways teachers use praise and informational feedback to students. Praise is not always effective. It can be effective under these conditions: 1) when it is given together with information about the relationship between what the student did and the academic outcomes; and 2) when it is appropriate to the particular children being praised.

Praise may elicit positive reactions from young children in the early elementary grades, who want to please and impress their teachers, and low-achieving children in the years before they devalue effort (i.e., middle grades and up). Praise is much less effective with children of relatively high ability, and it is of questionable value with older students.

When students are inclined to accept praise as sincere, it goes beyond informational feedback to inform them of the teacher's personal feelings about their achievement. But students have many chances to observe teacher praise that they do not associate with learning tasks, for example: when some students work deliberately for teacher praise; when teachers direct it to students who engage in unacceptable behavior, in an attempt to get them back on task; or when older students think it is compensation for their lack of ability (Hawley, Rosenholz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring, 1984).

Emotionally toned praise or reproof from teachers affect the ways students view learning tasks, gradually causing them to focus on the teachers' reactions or other extrinsic outcomes rather than the intrinsic worth of the learning task (Klausmeier, 1980). For this reason alone, teachers should do their best to build intrinsic motivation into task participation (Brophy, 1982), and, further, exert conscious effort to give information to students related to their progress toward the learning objectives.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Teachers must plan ways to give specific, content-focused feedback to students about their work. Such information will keep students' attention on the task itself and help them recognize the particular difficulties they may be having. It is essential that success feedback be included. It is important to all students, but especially so for those who have experienced frequent failure. The teacher's messages to the student must convey information about what has gone well and where remaining problems seem to lie (Lyman, Prentice-Dunn, Wilson, & Bonfilio, 1984).

- **TEACH STUDENTS TO INVOLVE THEMSELVES IN SETTING GOALS AND EVALUATING THEIR PROGRESS TOWARD THEM.**

HOW CAN THIS HELP?

Giving students factual information about their progress in relation to small tasks associated with reaching a larger goal increases the chances for their success and keeps the priority on the learning task. Having students involved in these processes further insures their investment in the task, rather than in some kind of reward external to the learning involved.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO TRY

Involving students in setting goals for themselves and evaluating their own progress requires the teacher to recognize the student's status and needs and to guide the student so that goals can be realistic, striking a balance between too easy and too difficult. Student involvement may be facilitated if the teacher demonstrates awareness and appreciation for student progress and serious interest in the student's own self-evaluation.

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. **For older students, employ instructional strategies that offer practice in competition, as a way of helping students gain confidence for placement tests, job applications and interviews, and other unavoidable competitive experiences.**

   - Deliberately teach test-taking skills, focusing on stress-management, use of time, and answering strategies which will place the student's responses in the most favorable light.

   - Help students analyze their performance, pinpoint problem areas, work on those, and try again. Also help them recognize what they did well, and reinforce their satisfaction for those areas.

2. **Structure class competitions which may build toward school team competitions and, perhaps, eventually to district competitions.**

   - Plan the focus of such competitions on problem-solving and analysis, rather than skills and particular abilities, for example:

     -- "What should the motto for excellence be in our school?"

     -- "How can students play a larger part in the decisions in this school?"

     -- "Resolved: Our class gift to the school should be _____."

-- "Develop a computer program for tracking and rewarding team competitions."

3. **Plan team assignments which extend the students' learning beyond the reading or other standard classroom assignments, so that students may cooperatively explore broader dimensions of the topic.**

   - Pose a question for the week which builds upon the instructional unit. Divide the class into teams and ask them to develop and present their collective thoughts on a subject. Examples: "Should government or industry be responsible for eliminating toxic waste?" "What responsibilities should students assume for other students who might be depressed and threatening suicide?" "Should our elementary school 'adopt' a school in Africa?"

4. **Build a cooperative group spirit in the classroom, deemphasizing competition between individuals.**

   - Involve students in developing the standards of behavior for classes and schools. Example: a student honor code, developed with strong student input, based on consensus among students and adults about reasonable school-related conduct, adopted by the class or school student body, and promoted and periodically reviewed by them (Hills, 1985; Stradley & Aspinall, 1975). A third- or fourth-grade class, as well as upper elementary and secondary classes, could develop such a set of standards, strengthening their own identification with each other and with the teacher and the school.

   - The peer teaching already mentioned (see p. 56 above) contributes to cooperative attitudes.

5. **When you use rewards and external reinforcements, tie them to objectives for academic effort or appropriate behavior.**

   - Make sure that all students, despite ability levels, receive legitimate recognition for their efforts. For example, provide a wide array of individual certificates and banners and the like, as well as award ceremonies for whole classes and teams.

6. **Give accurate information to students about their performance.**

   - Practice using such statements to individual students as "It is _____ when you _____ because _____." Fill in the blanks with the effect of the student's action, the action itself, and the reason for the effect. Such a statement allows you to give an affective reaction, while communicating to the student in terms of the learning task.

   - Reinforce positive behavior and effort through expressions of appreciation, support for personal pride, and task-related information. Examples: "You took a risk, and you have a right to be proud of yourself." Or "... and I appreciate it." "You went beyond the original assignment, and you learned _____ in the process."

7. **Use praise judiciously, either targeting it to those students most likely to be encouraged by it or accompanying it with the kind of information suggested immediately above.**

   - For young children, use complimentary comments that convey your liking and respect for them.

   - Praise low-achieving elementary school students for effort, pointing out to them how their attempts have a cause-effect relationship to the outcomes.

8. **Avoid using praise to redirect students' attention to a task or using it indiscriminately for all students.**

   - When student behavior is unacceptable, redirect attention to the task by a clear statement of what the student should do, by appropriate individual attention and your presence, and/or by a concrete focus for the students' wandering attention.

   - For most students from mid-elementary school and beyond, make a practice of emphasizing accomplishment, encouraging further effort, and expressing confidence in the students and appreciation for their efforts.

9. **Provide opportunities to students to participate in extracurricular activities that demonstrate and support students' special interests.**

   - Both teachers and students can volunteer their time and energy in such activities as debating clubs, ecology clubs, theater and fine arts organizations, community assistance projects, freshman orientation, "big brothers/sisters," and social issues clubs.

   - The intrinsic interest students feel in extracurricular activities, encouraged additionally by the interest of teachers, focuses their attention on the pleasure of the activity for its own sake.

10. **Provide opportunities for students to showcase their efforts and have them recognized publicly.**

    - Arrange for business and community support of students' projects. Display space at local shopping centers or business establishments can provide a wider audience for showcasing student work. Local newspaper coverage of student events and accomplishments helps to engender community pride.

    - Request professional expertise from the community to consult or mentor students during their work on projects. Plan these activities well to ensure that students have rich experiences and not "one-shot" presentations.

    - Invite parents to provide a variety of support activities for students. Use care to plan activities that do not demean parents by asking them to assist with low-level tasks.

- Market the successes of students beyond the classroom to the school and the community through assemblies and programs, newsletters or class newspapers, presentations to parents' and community organizations.

11. Systematically involve students in helping to set their own goals in learning.

- With young children, help them become aware of their choices of ways to carry out assignments, their chances to try repeatedly to master certain appropriately assigned tasks, and the progress they are making compared to their earlier status.

- Have students analyze tasks to identify steps or component parts and identify necessary steps in accomplishing those sub-tasks.

- Help them establish realistic goals in terms of difficulty, time, and current levels of ability. For students who set unrealistically high or low goals, work with them individually to help them relate effort to outcome and to acknowledge their own successes.

Integrating Principles for Enhancing Student Motivation

Since many teaching acts tap several motivational principles, the following student profiles are presented for your analysis and practice in integrating the principles and applying them to hypothetical situations similar to those you face frequently in your classroom. The student profile narratives are intended to serve as brief "snapshots" of student behaviors that present a challenge for most teachers as they apply strategies to improve student motivation.

STUDENT PROFILE I

John is a seventh grader who usually sits in the back of the class listening attentively but rarely initiating a response. When the teacher, Mrs. Frazier, introduces the math lesson, she asks whether the students understand the assignment. She usually accepts a group response of, "Yes, we understand," as evidence that they do. However, when students' seatwork is checked, it is typical for John to have numerous errors, indicating his lack of understanding. John is not a poor student. He is, it is felt, an underachiever, since his standardized test scores were high. John is well liked by his peers and interacts socially with the other students.

Attempts by Mrs. Frazier to have John respond to questions directed to him during class have been unavailing. John will drop his head and ignore the question. Mrs. Frazier usually skips over John to request a response from another student. She is concerned about finding strategies that would draw John into the mainstream of class activities.

Analysis:

John is one of the many students who move through the educational system causing little disturbance and drawing little attention to themselves. Since John has succeeded in avoiding close teacher attention by keeping such a "low profile" in the past, he may feel that it is the most effective strategy for him. The fear of failure with his peers may be a strong influence.

Intervention. If you were John's teacher, you might want to:

1. Interview John to establish rapport and obtain information on his goals, personal lifestyle, and family situation. Care must be taken to use this session to demonstrate concern. It should not become an interrogation into personal matters.

2. Reaffirm to John your belief that he can do better. Establish a tone of acceptance and respect. Identify strengths that John has and provide opportunities for him to act.

3. Provide John with opportunities to realize greater self-sufficiency and self-determination. Independent assignments that build on the meaning of math in everyday life are important. Let John choose a few projects for himself.

4. Consider where John sits. The placement of students in the classroom can convey to students a sense of being valued. Students in the front and center of the classroom often attract more of the teacher's attention.

5. Lengthen your "wait time" so that John has more opportunities to respond.

STUDENT PROFILE II

Mr. Johnson's tenth grade history class was told to prepare a presentation on the American Revolution. Mr. Johnson decided to vary the format students could use when presenting their papers. He instructed the students to form teams and assigned Susan, Larry, and Mike as team leaders. This was the first time the teacher had tried this approach. The usual pattern was to assign various aspects of a topic to specific students like Susan, Larry, and Mike.

At the end of two weeks, the teacher requested the class to decide on a schedule of presentations. Much to the teacher's surprise, his top three students were having problems in helping their groups reach consensus on a topic and approach. The other students complained that Susan, Larry, and Mike wanted to "have their way." The teams were rebelling against the leadership role of these three students. Furthermore, the three team leaders continuously asked Mr. Johnson to accept their individual responses and not force them to work with students whose ability they questioned.

What went wrong?

Analysis:

Oftentimes teachers modify their instructional strategies without providing adequate preparation for students. The following items identified in this analysis should provide teachers with an awareness of key prerequisite steps to insure student understanding and clarity about what is expected of them.

- The teacher did not clearly state the objectives or expectations for the task. Mr. Johnson should have made sure that each student understood the levels of mastery expected.

- There was no acknowledgment of the importance of a cooperative team experience. Mr. Johnson should have clarified that persons in the group were dependent upon each other for the success or failure of the project.

- Periodic checks were not made to provide feedback on the progress of students and to reinforce for Susan, Larry, and Mike the importance of the cooperative learning task.

- The cooperative environment Mr. Johnson planned should place the emphasis on the team effort and not on individual competition.

- Acknowledgment of the risk-taking involved in collaborating with someone else was not evident.

- A norm for acceptable behavior should have been established that promoted feelings of mutual regard and respect.

Improving the Learning Activity. In redesigning the activity, the teacher should consider all elements of the learning task, as follows:

1. What are the essential sub-learnings that should be attained?

2. Does this process serve as a diagnostic tool for the teacher to organize the learnings for students?

3. Are objectives for the task clearly stated?

4. Is consideration given to the levels of complexity of the task (Bloom, 1956)?

   -- **Knowledge**: Recall, memory, facts. Student behavior includes writing, listing, defining.

   -- **Comprehension**: Understanding, translating. Student behavior includes giving an explanation and selecting examples.

-- **Application**: Using information to solve a problem. Student behavior includes demonstrating, solving, and computing.

-- **Analysis**: Taking apart; looking for similarities. Student behavior includes relating to other similar situations, outlining, and the like.

-- **Synthesis**: Putting together/inventing. Student behavior includes designing, rearranging, and composing.

-- **Evaluation**: Supporting judgments with reason. Student behavior includes criticizing and selecting the best or most fitting.

5. Can the learning environment be structured so that competition is primarily between groups of students rather than between individuals?

   -- Provide opportunities for students to use each other as a resource.

   -- Group students heterogeneously to build on individual strengths collectively.

   -- Provide opportunities for students to assume a leadership role.

   -- Promote a learning environment that reduces hostility and fosters acceptance.

   -- Provide an opportunity for students to demonstrate supportive behavior.

   -- Reward students for achieving group goals.

REFERENCES

Ames, C. (1984). Competitive, cooperative, and individualistic goal structures: A cognitive-motivational analysis. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.) Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 177-207). NY: Academic Press.

Ames, R., & Ames, C. (1984). Systems of student and teacher motivation: Toward a qualitative definition. Journal of Educational Psychology, 74(4), 535-556.

Bandura, A. (1984). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 84(2), 191-215.

Bartz, D. E. (1983, February 25-28). Enhancing the psychological and social development of children in a desegregated school environment. A paper presented to the Annual Meeting, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 233 433.

Bloom, B. S. (Ed.). (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives, handbook I: Cognitive domain. NY: Longmans, Green and Company.

Brophy, J. E. (1982). Fostering student learning and motivation in the elementary school classroom. Occasional Paper No. 51. East Lansing: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 216 008.

Canfield, J., & Wells, H. (1976). 100 Ways to Enhance Self-Concept in the Classroom: A handbook for teachers and parents. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Castenell, L. A. (1983). Achievement motivation: An investigation of adolescents' achievement patterns. American Education Research Journal, 20(4), 503-510.

Castenell, L. (1984). A cross-cultural look at achievement motivation research. Journal of Negro Education, 53(4), 435-443.

Cohen, P., & Hills, T. (1985). Improving students' abilities to read and think. Trenton, NJ: New Jersey State Department of Education.

Cotton, K., & Savard, W. G. (1982). Student discipline and motivation: Research synthesis. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 224 170.

Covington, M. V. (1984). The motive for self-worth. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 78-113). NY: Academic Press.

Davis, E. P. (1985). A manual for the development of classroom management skills. Trenton: New Jersey State Department of Education.

DeCharms, R. (1984). Motivation enhancement in educational settings. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 275-310). NY: Academic Press.

DeLeonibus, N. (1979). Student motivation: An intricate puzzle. The Practitioner, Newsletter of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 5(3), 1-12.

Education Commission of the States. (1983). Action for excellence. Denver: Author, Task Force on Education for Economic Growth.

Elkind, D. (1971). Cognitive growth cycles in mental development. In J. K. Cole (Ed.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation (Vol. 14), (pp. 1-29). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1971.

Farrell, J. A. (1982). Motivation and learning -- It's as easy as riding a bike. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 66, 454.

Gage, N. L. (1984). What do we know about teaching effectiveness? Phi Delta Kappan, 66(2), 87-93.

Good, T. L. (1982). Research on teaching: Some important areas of progress. In F. W. Parkay, S. O'Bryan, and M. Hennessy (Eds.), Quest for quality: Improving basic skills instruction in the 1980s (pp. 5-14). San Marcos, TX: Southwest Texas University, Center for the Study of Basic Skills.

Goodlad, J. I. (1983). Access to Knowledge. Teachers College Record, 84(4), 787-800.

Goodman, K. S., & Goodman, Y. M. (1982). A whole-language comprehension-centered view of reading development. In L. Reed & S. Ward (Eds.), Basic skills issues and choices - 2: Issues in basic skills planning and instruction. St. Louis, MO: CEMREL.

Greenberger, E. (1982). Education and the acquisition of psychosocial maturity. In D. McClelland (Ed.) The development of social maturity (pp. 155-189) NY: Irvington Publishers.

Hawley, R. C. & Hawley, I. L. (1979). Building motivation in the classroom. Amherst, MA: ERA Press.

Hawley, W. D., Rosenholtz, S., Goodstein, H. J., & Hasselbring, T. (1984). Good schools: What research says about improving student achievement. Peabody Journal of Education, 61(14), 1-178.

Heibert, E. H., Winograd, P. N., & Danner, F. W. (1984). Children's attributions for failure and success in different aspects of reading. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76(6), 1139-1148.

Hills. T. W. (1985). Identifying and fostering positive student behavior: The New Jersey project on student expectations. Trenton, New Jersey State Department of Education.

Hops, H., & Cobbs, J.A. (1974). Initial investigations into academic survival-skill training, direct instruction, and first-grade achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 66, 548-553.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1975). Learning together and alone: Cooperation, competition and individualization. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Klausmeier, H. J. (1980, April 7-11). Motivational procedures in school settings. Paper presented to 64th Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association, Boston.

Lyman, R. D., Prentice-Dunn, S., Wilson, D. R., & Bonfilio, S. A. (1984). The effect of success or failure on self-efficacy and task persistence of conduct-disordered children. Psychology in Schools, 21(4), 516-519.

Maehr, M. L. (1982). Motivational factors in school achievement. Paper presented to Meeting of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, Washington, D.C. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 227 095.

Maehr, M. L. (1984). Meaning and motivation: Toward a theory of personal investment. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 115-144). NY: Academic Press.

Maslow, A. H. (1954). Motivation and personality. NY: Harper & Row.

Matthews, K. M., & Chan, T. C. (1980). Referent differences in pupil motivation: Implications for test validity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 40(2), 531-536.

Matthews, K. M., & Holmes, C. T. (1983). Improving test scores -- How to develop comprehensive plans. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 67(460), 104-12.

Miller, S. K., & Crano, W. D. (1980, April 7-11). Raising low-income/minority achievement by reducing student sense of academic futility: The underlying theoretical commonalities of suggested strategies. Paper presented at 64th Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association, Boston. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 186 575.

National Commission on Educational Excellence. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for education reform. Washington, DC: Author.

Nicholls, J. G. (1979). Quality and equality in intellectual development: The role of motivation in education. American Psychologist, 34(11), 1071-84).

Nicholls, J. G. (1984). Conceptions of ability and achievement motivation. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 39-73). NY: Academic Press.

Nicholls, J. G., & Burton, J. T. (1982). Motivation and equality. The Elementary School Journal, 82(4), 367-378.

Norton, M. S. (1983). It's time to get tough on student promotion -- Or is it? Contemporary Education, 54(4), 283-86.

Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's theory. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's manual of child psychology (Vol. 1), (pp. 703-732). NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Powell, A. G., Farrar, E., & Cohen, D. K. (1985). The shopping mall high school. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Rutter, M. (1980). Changing youth in a changing society. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Sedlak, M., Wheeler, C., Pullin, D., & Cusick, P. (1985). High school reform and the "bargain" to learn. Education and Urban Society, 17(2), 204-214.

Shepard, L. A., & Smith, M. L. (1985). Boulder Valley kindergarten study: Retention practices and retention effects. Boulder, CO: Boulder Valley Public Schools.

Sizer, T. R. (1984). Horace's compromise: The dilemna of the American high school. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

Sopris West, Inc. (1985). Educational programs that work (11th ed.). Longmont, CO: Author.

Steinkamp, M. W., & Maehr, M. L. (1984). Gender differences in motivational orientations toward achievement in school science: A quantitative synthesis. American Education Research Journal, 22(1), 39-59.

Stinson, M. (1984). Research on motivation in educational settings: Implications for hearing-impaired students. Journal of Special Education, 18(2), 177-98.

Stipek, D. J. (1982). Motivating students to learn: A lifelong perspective. A paper presented to Meeting of National Commission on Excellence in Education. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 227 111.

Stipek, D. J. (1984). The development of achievement motivation. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.) Research on motivation in education (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 145-174). NY: Academic Press.

Stipek, D. J., & Weisz, J. R. (1981). Perceived personal control and academic achievement. Review of Educational Research, 51(1), 101-137.

Stradley, W. E., & Aspinall, R. D. (1975). Discipline in the junior high/middle school: A handbook for teachers, counselors, and administrators. NY: Center for Applied Research in Education.

Thompson, S. (1980). Grade retention and social promotion. Management Digest, Series 1, No. 20. Burlingame, CA: Association of California School Administrators. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 189 681.

Uguroglu, M. E., & Walberg, H. J. (1979, April 8-12). Motivation and achievement: A quantitative synthesis. Paper presented at Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association, San Francisco. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 206 043.

Walker, H. M., & Hops, H. (1976). Increasing academic achievement by reinforcing direct academic performance and/or facilitative nonacademic responses. Journal of Educational Psychology, 68(2), 218-225.

Webb, C. D., & Baird, J. H. (1980). Three strategies for motivating pupils. Clearing House, 54(1), 27-29.

Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. Journal of Educational Psychology, 71(1), 3-25.

Weiner, B. (1984). Principles for a theory of student motivation and their application within an attributional framework. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), Research in Motivation (Vol. 1), Student motivation (pp. 15-38). NY: Academic Press.

White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. Psychological Review. 6(5), 297-333.

Wlodkowski, R. J. (1984). Motivation and Teaching: A Practical Guide. Washington D.C.: National Education Association.

APPENDIX

RELATED PUBLICATIONS OF THE NEW JERSEY STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

PUBLICATIONS

The State Department of Education has developed publications to assist New Jersey educators as they work to improve student achievement and behavior. These publications address the behavioral issues and problems educators experience in our schools.

In these publications, worthwhile and well-documented theories, research programs, and practices are described and discussed in the necessary detail for their application in schools and classrooms. A list of the publications is provided below.

In most cases, a copy of each publication is distributed to the chief school administrators of local school districts. Copies are also distributed through training activities which are usually available to accompany the publications. The training activities are offered through the regional curriculum services units. Copies of the publications may also be purchased through the department's Forms Management and Distribution Services Office (see address on the front inside cover of this booklet).

- **Student Codes of Conduct: A Guide to Policy Review and Code Development** (Fall 1985) - a guidebook to help school districts develop and implement clear and fair codes of conduct and to develop policies for student rights and responsibilities. It encourages districts to update their policies and, if necessary, revise them so that the rules which govern the behavior of students, as well as the responsibilities of the staff and parents for enforcing these rules, are clear to all.

- **A Manual for the Development of Classroom Management Skills** (Summer 1985) - a resource guide to assist school districts in improving classroom management and in reducing disruptive student behavior. The manual allows users to match identified areas of need with strategies for meeting those needs. The models presented have been field-tested in schools and found to be effective. They are based on research which demonstrates that well-managed classrooms provide students with fewer opportunities for disruption and more opportunities for learning.

- **Help at Home for Learning in School** (Spring 1986) - a handbook for parents, emphasizing the significance of family support for children's academic achievement, and suggesting specific ways parents can assist in enhancing student achievement.

- **Alternative Education Programs for Disruptive Students** (1984) - a resource guide which summarizes the research and provides a conceptual framework for developing alternative educational programs for disruptive students. It describes program models that have been identified as effective with chronically disruptive students and provides a generic planning/implementation process.

- **Program Models for the Prevention, Intervention and Treatment of Student Substance Abuse** (1984) - a compendium which presents brief descriptions of curricula and programs recommended by national and state experts on alcohol, drugs, and tobacco. It references model programs and New Jersey schools using these models.

- **Desk Reference Manual on Student Drug and Alcohol Use: A Comprehensive Planning Guide for School Administrators** (September 1985) - a manual which serves as a resource guide for school decision makers. Individual sections cover policy, legal considerations, curriculum, intervention approaches, training and evaluation, all in a planning context.

- **Adolescent Suicide Awareness Training Manual** (1984) - a training manual to assist school districts in dealing with the alarming rise in adolescent suicide. Several important topics are treated, including the impact of suicide on society, myths and facts about suicide, a statistical profile of adolescent suicide, early warning signs and community resources, as well as intervention and follow-up with students who attempt suicide.

- **Identifying and Fostering Positive Student Behavior** (Winter 1985) - a research monograph designed to help school personnel reach agreement with parents and students on the nature of student roles and responsibilities in school and the behavior which is necessary for learning.

Feedback Form

Classroom Motivation: Helping Students Want To Learn And Achieve in School

Please evaluate this product by answering the following questions. Your frank comments will help us to continue to improve our products.

1. Does the document provide information about motivation that you did not previously know?

   _____ Yes _____ No

2. Does reading this document change your thinking about the process of motivation in the classroom?

   _____ Yes _____ No _____ To some degree

3. Which of the following best describes your reaction to the motivational strategies and techniques described in the document?

   _____ I plan to use some of them in my classroom.
   _____ I have used some of them in my classroom.
   _____ I have not used and do not plan to use these techniques.

4. Would you recommend this document to other teachers as a source of useful classroom motivation strategies?

   _____ Yes _____ No _____ In some situations

5. Rate the document in regard to style, organization of information, and form? Use a scale of 1 = Excellent to 5 = Poor:

   1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

Return to: **Bureau of Student Behavior and Development**
Division of General Academic Education
New Jersey State Department of Education
225 West State Street (CN 500)
Trenton, New Jersey 08625

TH/pe:1/2071j